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Information Seeking Behaviour in Recruiting: Examining the background and motivation of job-seeking employees in their search for job content and job context information

A thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy, Marketing

at Lincoln University

by Noor Awanis Muslim

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Abstract of a thesis submitted in partial fulfilment of the requirements for the Degree of Doctor of Philosophy

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by

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Recruitment involves number of decisions; some are made by the organization and others by individual job seekers. If done well, recruitment can lead to success for organizations and job satisfaction for job holders. If done poorly, organisational success suffers, and individuals can be dissatisfied with their job, make poor decisions, and perhaps leave the firm. Job dissatisfaction occurs when jobs fail to meet the individuals’ expectations or fulfil their needs. Such job dissatisfaction often leads to a new job search.

In the job search literature, the type and attributes of the job information available are important for job seekers. However, the most valued specific job-related information varies across potential employees. This variation exists because the search for specific job-related information differs among individuals, influenced by individuals’ needs and expectations. The process of matching individuals’ needs and expectations with the selection of specific job-related information may help avoid job dissatisfaction and turnover.

This research combines theory from the context of individuals (backgrounds of potential employees), the theory of motivation to search (for jobs), and the theory of job information into a new research framework. This research will examine the relationship between job dissatisfaction, motivation to search and specific job-related
information to search. Though job dissatisfaction appears to differ among job-seekers, it is analysed in terms of job categories such as engineers, technicians, managers and clerical staff. The second construct, motivation to search, is dependent on individuals’ needs for improvement in terms of salary, Current Working Conditions or the Job Itself. Finally, these two constructs will be examined in terms of selecting Specific Job-Related Information that has been provided in job advertisements. This research also explores the technical and non-technical job categories and their impact on Motivation Factors and Specific Job-Related Information constructs. The findings of this research will contribute theoretically and practically to the job search field.

To test these effects, 10 hypotheses were proposed in this thesis. Data was collected from 302 employees who have 3 years or less working experience in their organisation. The results were analysed by using Bivariate Correlation in SPSS software.

Results show that no differences were found in the relationship between job supervision responsibility levels and specific job-related information. However, between job search motivation and specific job-related information, employees with different employee motivational perspectives were found to seek different specific information.

Keywords: job dissatisfaction, job category, motivation to search, job specific related information, recruitment sources.
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Chapter 1

Introduction

1.0 Background of The Study

Recruitment is an important function of an organization’s human resources planning. This is because recruitment is responsible for attracting new employees with appropriate knowledge and skills required by the organisation (Momin, & Mishra, 2015; Allen, et al, 2004). Successful recruitment results in an organisation hiring employees who are skilled, experienced, and a good fit with the organisation’s culture (Swider et al, 2015; Sangeetha, 2010; Barber, 1998). This is crucial to ensure the retention of quality employees and the financial success of the company in the long run (Momin, & Mishra, 2015; Swider et al, 2015; Sangeetha, 2010). Substandard recruitment processes result in an organisation failing to hire the right potential employees (Swider et al, 2015; Breaugh & Starke, 2000). This failure may incur the cost of further recruiting for the organisation and contribute to a decreasing level of job satisfaction of new employees (Delfagaauw, 2007; Breaugh & Starke, 2000).

Research on job dissatisfaction has increased dramatically as researchers agree conduct research that help organisations to improve their recruitment outcomes (Breaugh, 2008; 2012; Breaugh & Starke, 2000). Researchers in the recruitment field suggest that to have a better recruitment outcome, the organisation must achieve several specific components of recruitment (Sangeetha, 2010). Providing useful information for a potential new employee is one of these important
components for achieving a better outcome for recruitment practices (Mukoyama et al, 2014; Barbulescu, 2015; Breaugh, 2008). This process allows the new employee to utilise this useful information to suit their current needs or motivations. If the provided information does not meet current needs, a chance of job dissatisfaction is increased (Mukoyama et al, 2014; Oldham & Hackman, 2010).

Job dissatisfaction in a current job leads to the search for a new job (Ito et al, 2014; Bretz, Boudreau & Judge, 1993). Job search can be used as a means of improving employment conditions in one’s current organization (Wallace & Tauber, 2014; Lazear, 1986). Job search behaviour occurs in a variety ways, depending on employees’ needs, motivations and/or expectations (Liu et al, 2014; Delfagauw, 2007; Ramlal, 2004). This often includes searching for a variety of specific job related information (Pager, & Pedulla, 2015; Delfagaauw, 2007; Armstrong, 1971). It seems that motivational factor\(^1\) is directly related to selecting specific job related information\(^2\) and these factors are varied according to background of employees (Pager, & Pedulla, 2015; Ellis, 1996; Armstrong, 1971).

In the theory of motivation, previous researchers relate the influence of motivation in deriving job satisfaction or decreasing job dissatisfaction (Jha & Bhattarcharrya, 2012; Herzberg, 1956); which will make an employee motivated at their workplace (Tyagi, 2015; Wright, 1989), motivated to do work (Hayati & Caniago...

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\(^1\) In the theory of motivation, motivational factor refers to individuals’ job characteristics and job environment (Herzberg, 1959).

\(^2\) Specific job related information refers to job content and context as discussed in chapter 2 Literature review.
In the theory of job information, Armstrong (1971) divides job information as two types: job content, where the information is about the job itself, and job context, information related to the environment surrounding the job (Ellis, 1996; Armstrong, 1971). Previous findings suggest that employee background influences their motivations and how they view job content and job context information (Nujjoo & Meyers, 2012; Kaufman & Fetters, 1980; Armstrong, 1971; Ellis, 1996). Hence, it posits that employee motivation factors and the importance of job information varies according to the employee’s background. However, the relationship between job information, motivations and employees’ backgrounds has not been studied in the context of recruiting and job seeking and job information seeking behaviour to date.

1.1 Research problem

Recruitment has a crucial impact on decision-making within the organisations and by individuals (Momin, & Mishra, 2015; Breaugh, 2012; Barbers, 1998;). Job dissatisfaction is an important issue for many people including managers, customers and employees, as well as a matter for organisations because, in general, job dissatisfaction can contribute to mental and physical health, lower levels of turnover and absenteeism (Jha & Bhattacharrya, 2012).

Having unpleasant feelings about a job may lead individuals to search for mechanisms to reduce the dissatisfaction (Jha & Bhattacharrya, 2012). Rosse &
Saturay (2004) claim that as individuals become more dissatisfied, they are more likely to engage in negative reactive behaviours, such as quitting, rather than adaptive behaviours, such as problem solving or adjusting expectations. The conclusion is that quitting is a possible behavioural outcome from high levels of job dissatisfaction.

Another outcome from job dissatisfaction is job search (Zikic & Saks, 2009; Brasher & Chen, 1999; Armstrong, 1971;). Job dissatisfaction is derived from unmet needs or expectations, whether the individual’s needs or desires have not been fulfilled (Herzberg, 1956) or because they received inaccurate information at the time of job entry (Saks, 1994). Unmet needs expectation may lead employees to not being motivated to perform their job (Jha & Bhattacharya, 2012; Herzberg, 1956;). For example, individuals are motivated when they have comfortable working conditions, job security, good salary (Mohsin et al., 2013; Armstrong, 1971; Herzberg, 1956) or some are motivated when they are happy with the conditions of job itself (Skaalvik & Skaalvik, 2011; Herzberg, 1956;).

Realistic, accurate and complete information at the time of entry contributes to positive attitudes and possibly greater job survival (Wanous, 1992). In relation with the above discussion, it shows that the information is accurate, realistic and complete and if it considers individuals’ unmet need expectation it may enhance job satisfaction and reduce intention to quit (e.g., Mohsin et al., 2013; Herzberg, 1956).
Job information searching is important for an individual’s career development. This is because searching and finding relevant and accurate information (Zikic & Saks, 2009) allows individuals to match themselves with a job and organisation (Saks, 1994) with the necessary information to successfully cope with the new environment (Blustein, 1997). Barber and Roehling (1993) add that information adequacy influences whether applicants decide to apply for jobs and that applicants are more attracted to specific information (e.g., exact starting salary) than vague information.

Much research has focused on the attributes of job information (e.g., (Saleem, 2010; Barber & Roehling, 1993; Saks, 1994) and the consequences of using it. For example, the attributes of job information have been found to an important part of the fitness/match process that contributes to an applicant’s decision to apply for a job (Barber & Roehling, 1993).

Individuals prefer different types of job content and job context information. Armstrong (1971) argues that specific job-related information makes the greatest contribution to overall job satisfaction. He also found that different occupational levels need different specific job-related information. Ellis (1996) claims that individuals with different backgrounds and prior preferences need different specific job-related information. Leung (2007) found that individuals from different industries seek different specific job-related information. Boswell, Zimmerman and Swider (2012) explain that employees from different backgrounds have different types of objectives and need different specific job-related information. While the results were similar, the research conducted by Boswell
et.al (2012) and Ellis (1996) focussed on different attributes. Ellis (1996) focused on one profession but different levels while Boswell et.al (2012) extended the variability of employees’ background from new entrants to senior employees. This suggests that a number of different sample attributes contributes to different types of job information needs.

The job search information and recruitment research suggest that it is important to further investigate job information search and specific job-related information. The review of the previous literature also showed that no research has investigated the relationship between the different backgrounds of individuals, different motivations and different specific job-related information in one study. The current study aims to investigate that relationship; however, prior to investigating these relationship, inventories of job categories and job supervision types, and job information types need to be established.

1.2 Research gaps
1. The first research gap is the lack of published research examining the relationships between employees’ background, employees’ motivation and the preference of specific job-related information in a job information search.

2. The second research gap is the limited current research on the relative importance of job of information with respect to the multiple backgrounds of employees.

3. The third research gap relates to the lack of published research exploring the differences between job categories and job supervision responsibility in terms
of motivation factors and specific job-related information in job search process.

1.3 Objectives of the study
The aim of this study is to conceptualise and empirically investigate information seeking behaviour from the perspective of the employee. Specifically, there are three objectives of this study. Firstly, it is to examine the background of the employees and identify the variance of relationship towards job search motivation drivers. The second objective is to investigate the relationship between job supervision responsibility and types of job of information (job content and context). The final objective is to test the relationship between job search motivation factors and specific job-related information. These three objectives are addressed in the theoretical model and analysed through relevant hypotheses which are presented and discussed in Chapter 3.

1.4 Significance of the study
This research will make contributions in the area of information seeking behaviour for both researchers and practitioners. For researchers, this research combines two theories in one application: a theory of motivations and a theory of specific job-related information. The input (combination of two theories mentioned) is a new contribution in job search theory. This new combination is tested using supervision responsibility as the employees’ background. The findings of this present study first provide empirical evidence of the relative importance of the factors that motivate employees to search for another job and secondly
examine how they differ and validates this research framework with empirical testing by examining the relationship between employees’ background, employees’ motivation and selections of specific job-related information in job information search.

From practitioner, this research provides a reliable and valid instrument to evaluate job information search that will benefit organisations attempting to improve their recruitment practices. The findings of this research also provide organisations with an improved understanding of employees’ job search behaviour which can be applied to develop and implement successful recruitment processes.

1.5 Organisation of The Thesis

The thesis is organised as follows. This introductory chapter is followed by a review of the research literature (Chapter 2). The review is divided into three sections. Section one discusses Recruitment and the importance of studying Recruitment in relation to Information Seeking Behaviour. The second section combines the literature regarding Motivation and Job Information theory, as the foundation of the thesis. Based on this literature review, a conceptual model and hypotheses are developed in Chapter 3. Chapter 4 discusses the research methods, detailing the choice of research approach, data collection strategy, research instrument, sampling process and the appropriate statistical procedures used for testing the hypotheses. Chapter 5 presents descriptive analysis, data analysis and explanation of the results. Chapter 6 discusses the results and its contributions, with theoretical and managerial implications. This final chapter also discusses research limitations and offers possible future research avenues.
Chapter 2
Literature Review

2.0 Introduction

This chapter reviews the main focus of the research concerning information seeking behaviour in recruiting and serves two specific purposes. First, previous research provides a framework useful for understanding developments in information seeking behaviour in recruiting that has emerged in the literature. Second, providing a systematic review of the existing body of literature has allowed identification of the ideas and issues that in turn provide the focus of the present study. This chapter thus presents, interprets and criticises the research background of the recruitment, motivation theories, job information and job search threads in the literature which comprise the foundation for this study.

In the literature, recruitment is typically explored from two perspectives: the employer and the employee. These perspectives are comprehensively discussed in Section 2.1. Employer and employee perspectives are considered in the discussion of recruitment as a fit between the needs of the organisation and the individual, and on the outcomes that occur when the fit is good as well as when it is poor. These issues are discussed in Section 2.2.

This PhD thesis focused solely on the employee's perspective, exploring the variation in solely, employee perceptions of job satisfaction. This perspective is discussed in Section 2.3. Section 2.4 provides an overview of motivation and the theories that
make use of the concept. Variations in employees’ backgrounds indicate that there are
different levels and types of motivational factors for job searching, as well as different
types of job information required in the job search process. Theories of motivation
such as that offered by Herzberg will be discussed in subsection 2.4.2. Section 2.5
provides an introduction to the importance of job characteristics to job search. In
order to align job search with motivation factors, job factors are discussed. Following
this, job information is discussed in Section 2.6 and job search is discussed in Section
2.7. Chapter 2 concludes with a review of the impact of the different background
characteristics of employed job seekers, those looking for a new position, discussed in
Sections 2.8 to 2.10.

2.1 Recruitment Perspectives

At a basic level, recruitment is concerned with understanding how vacant jobs have
been offered and/or advertised, and what factors influence applications from potential
employees in their job search process. In line with this understanding, this study
discusses definitions of recruitment from two perspectives: employer and employee.
From the employer’s perspective, Rynes (1989) conceptualised recruitment as
practices and decisions that contribute to the quality and quantity of potential
employees to be accepted within an organisation. For Breaugh (1992), recruitment is
an organisational activity that emphasises either numbers of job applicants or whether
a job offer is accepted. Reyne’s definition from the 1990’s highlights that recruitment
was seen as an effort by the organisation to attract people to apply for a job. However,
by the 2000’s, the idea of recruitment had been extended to include a more precise set
of characteristics.
Eze (2002), defined recruitment as an activity of searching the right candidates to fill up the open, where the right candidate is hired. This notion suggests that the purpose of recruitment is to encourage potential and suitably qualified applicants to apply for job vacancies. Jovanovic (2004) and Costello (2006) both argued that a good recruitment design is a way to attract a pool of potential applicants so as to be able to select the best from among them. Momin and Mishra (2015) emphasise that the selection of the best employees depends upon applicants having the appropriate knowledge and skills required by the organisation. Those that are a better match with the organisation will have greater work experience and higher calibre skills (Swider et al, 2015; Sangeetha, 2010).

The definitions provided above suggest that employers have a responsibility in attracting a pool of quality applicants, along with generating a sufficient quantity of potential applicants for a job. This is crucial process aimed at hiring the best suited applicants is only a first step, but when part of a human resource strategy, where the best performing employees are retained, can contribute to the long run consequences for the financial success of the organisation (Momin & Mishra, 2015; Swider et al, 2015; Sangeetha, 2010;).

In contrast, a poor recruitment design fails to attract the best potential employees, and organisations cannot hire those who do not apply (Swider et al, 2015; Breaugh & Starke, 2000). If substandard employees are hired, they may lead to lower productivity, potential dismissal cost, and eventually additional recruiting for the organisation (Koen, Vianen & Van Hooft, 2016; Delfagaauw, 2007). Given the importance of the process for both applicant and potential employer, it is notable that
the intention of recruitment from the employer's perspective is different to that held by the employee perspective.

Recruitment from the employee’s perspective can be conceptualised as an attempt to match their knowledge, skills and ability with the opportunities offered by the organisation (Kristof, 1996); it is about an employee satisfying their desires, wants and needs, representing an inward focus. The experienced or the currently employed person is likely to be more concerned with fulfilling their unmet job expectations then they able to search their desired job (Koen et al., 2016; Kennedy, 2005; Kristof, 1996).

It is important to ensure that employees' unmet expectations are recognised and understood. If successful, this is likely to help the organisation retain their current employees and improve talent management for the organisation (Christensen & Rog, 2008). In turn, more highly satisfied employees enhance the retention rate for the organisation (Breaugh, 2013). Further, good employee retention stimulates employees’ commitment; organisational performance is increased (Sutanto & Kurniawan, 2016).

Thus, from an employee's perspective, to fulfil unmet expectations is paramount, and is related to the fit between organisation and employee. From an employer's perspective, a strategy of designing a good recruitment strategy is likely to belong amongst their core responsibilities. Thus, a good fit between employees and the organisation act as a good indication of a successful recruitment process.
2.2. Goodness-of-Fit in Recruitment

Goodness-of-fit is a useful indicator for the organisation because it helps to predict the positive response within the employees (where the good match between employees and the work environment is occurred) (Carless, 2005). A positive fit helps to increase employee job satisfaction, improves employees’ organisational commitment, provides a sense of group cohesion, enhances the duration of an employee's stay with a particular organisation, produces better job performance among employees (Koopmans et al., 2014; Jha & Bhattacharyya, 2012; Cable & Judge, 1996; Bretz Jr. & Judge, 1994) and to discourage turnover (Mohsin, et al., 2013; Cable & Judge, 1996; O'Reilly, Chatman & Caldwell, 1991).

The idea of goodness-of-fit in employee-employer relations can be seen from two long held traditions in organisational research; complementary and supplementary fit (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). Complementary fit is reciprocal process where the employees offer their skills to match with job demand and in return the organisation offers a comparable reward for that particular effort. In organisational psychological research, need fulfilment is assessed in order to investigate the employees’ attitudes when their desire is matched with the offer made by the organisation; their unmet expectations are met (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Edwards, 1991).

Supplementary fit is about a good match between employees and the job environment; job environment refers to how well the employees blend in with the job environment context. (Muchinsky & Monahan, 1987). For example, many employees prefer to join in the organisation that has similar values and similar interests as their own. This decision potentially contributes to the comfortable feeling that employees have
between the members within similar organisation. This fit is important because it is likely to support the values and activities of the organisation. The feeling of “fitting in” is derived when the employees perceived they are alike or similar to another member within the similar organisation. The supplementary fit is generated when there is a harmony in the relationships between employees and organisations (Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof, 1996).

Cable and Edwards (2004) suggest that by achieving basic human needs, and acknowledging the similarities between the members, reflects the two practices of fit presented above (complementary and supplementary). A happy state can be achieved when the employees meet their targeted psychological needs and have a value congruence between the members in the organisation. They also suggest that psychological need fulfilment and value congruence progress in parallel but are separate constructs. This is likely because they emerge from two different sources in the literature. Researchers agree that psychological need fulfilment and value congruence enhances the employee – organisation fit (Mohsin et al., 2013; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof, 1996).

2.2.1 Psychological Need Fulfilment

Psychological need fulfilment has been an important mechanism for researchers faced with conceptualizing and operationalizing employee-organisation complementary fit (Edwards, 1991). Most of the early findings in the psychological need fulfilment literature (Wanous & Lawler, 1972; French & Kahn, 1962; Maslow, 1943) focused more on personal experience and interpersonal relationship rather than the more basic
biological needs in the process of psychological needs identification. A good fit is achieved when the supply from the organisation meeting the needs of the employee (French, Caplan & Harrison, 1982). Hence, theories of psychological need fulfilment predict that an employee will not in a happy state if their needs exceed what they expect to get in return from the organisation.

2.2.2 Value Congruence

Schwartz and Bilsky (1990;1987) provide a conceptual definition of values that integrates five distinct attributes comprising: 1) an abstract idea, 2) pertaining to favourable behaviours, 3) transcending particular conditions, 4) that lead to the choices of behaviour and circumstances, and 5) are ordered in importance sequence. They argued that individual values are important because they guide employees’ decisions and behaviour. Organisational values are important to organisation because they help the organisation to set out the guidelines for resources allocation and how organisational employees are expected to behave.

Chatman (1989) and Kristof (1996) referred to value congruence as the “similarity between an individual’s values and the cultural value system of an organisation” (p. 823). Similarity in values within a group is able to influence employees’ beliefs as well as their behaviour towards organisation This similarity exists because employees are more attracted to those who have similar values as their own, and the development of confidence and trust is increased (Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Value congruence can explain why employees find they fit more easily into an organisation with employees that share similar aspect of thought and judgement. Additional advantages for holding similar values is that employees may show improved communication and
interpersonal relationships (O'Reilly et al., 1991; Tsui & O'Reilly, 1989). Conversely, value incongruence may contribute to dissatisfaction (O'Reilly et al., 1991).

The discussion above emphasises the view that value congruence is an important dimension of the employee’s fit and the working environment (Adkins et al., 1996). Thus, value congruence contributes to generating employee satisfaction.

2.2.3 Summary of Psychological Need Fulfilment and Value Congruence

In summary, recruitment is about employee goodness-of-fit. Goodness-of-fit occurs when an individual’s psychological need fulfilment and value congruence with those of the organisation are met. Traditionally, psychological need fulfilment and value congruence are thought to be the keys for determining an individual's satisfaction or dissatisfaction (Herzberg, 1966; Maslow, 1943).

The positive outcome of having good fit is the generation of a reliable and productive employment relationship (Cable & Edwards, 2004). More specifically, the employment relationship where the employee accepts and keeps the job is partly because they are happy with the rewards in return for what they do for the organisation (Tsui et al., 1997). The absence of fit is likely to lead to employees searching for alternative job opportunities (Frey & Stutzer, 2010; Boswell et al., 2006; Kanfer et al., 2001; Locke, 1976).
2.3 Job satisfaction

The topic of job satisfaction has attracted worldwide interest due to its ability to explain the attitudes of individuals towards their work. Satisfaction may be examined by considering complementary fit, supplementary fit, psychological need fulfilment and value congruence. It is a well-researched topic in fields of psychology related, as well as in management. (Ellis, Skidmore & Comb, 2017; Cranny, Smith & Stone, 1992). For example, researchers have focussed on related issues such as hiring, and job fit (Ellis et al., 2017), job rewards (Ganzach & Fried, 2012), happiness and economics (Frey & Stutzer 2010) and job security (Origo & Pagani, 2009). The concept has also contributed to the understanding of well-being in society, and more recently has been applied to research on ways to improve well-being.

Organisations are concerned with employees’ job dissatisfaction, because if ignored it could cause critical problems (Ziegler et al., 2015; Staples & Higgins, 1998; Gruneberg, 1979) such as quit from existing job, low motivation to work and many more possible negative job outcomes. Job dissatisfaction refers to the feeling of not happy among employees upon to entire assessment of their current job and this dissatisfaction lead employees to search for a new job. These feelings of dissatisfaction mean employees perceive the working environment in a negative context in respect of: salary or current working conditions or the job itself, or a combination of factors. Therefore, change needs to occur in order for employees to regain their job satisfaction and is important because the services provided by the organisation often rely on high performing employees; the happier the employees, the more likely they will perform well for the organisation.
In summary, complementary employee organisational fit, supplementary employee organisational fit, psychological need fulfilment and value congruence contribute not only to job satisfaction but organisational health and performance.

In early work of defining job satisfaction, many scholars describe satisfaction as happy feelings resulting from satisfaction with one’s work and the work environment (Locke, 1976, Smith et al, 1975). It can be said this feeling consists of emotional judgements of whether the job and its environment are consistent with what employees expected. Locke (1976) went on to say that job satisfaction is “a pleasurable or positive emotional state resulting from the appraisal of one’s job or job experiences” (p. 1304). Locke further suggested that the satisfaction response of individuals reflects both on cognitive values and the importance of those values.

The definition notes that job satisfaction relates to employees’ basic needs as well their growth needs and which vary across employees. It seems that job satisfaction plays a role in connecting desired job characteristics, rewards, and personal relationships. Locke (1976) posited that job satisfaction can be assessed in terms of of five elements: 1) the job itself, the examples of assessment of work are such as challenging, interesting, the responsibility in making decision, recognition, advancement), 2) pay - it measures from aspect fairness, the amount received, payment method, 3) promotions- a measure of how likely employees will get promoted – including any biases in the procedure, 4) supervision - the measurement variables including style in supervision, supervisee-supervisor relations, skills in administration and 5) co-workers is assessed in terms of approachable, helpful, knowledgeable, ability and skill (qualified).
Cranney et al., (1992), noted that job satisfaction derives from the comparison made between actual outcome; when the results show the desired expectations are met, the employees are excited. Job satisfaction indicates the achievement of employees’ needs and wants (Knoop, 1994). By having this feeling of happiness, it may generate positive perception among employees toward the organisation (Fisher, 2000). These happy moments contribute to job satisfaction as needs are met, which ultimately increases motivate to work. But if the needs are not fulfilled, thus the employees feel dissatisfied and this may be lead them to search for another job. Overall job satisfaction can be described as an assessment process employee undertake (deliberately or unconsciously) that lead to their perceptions of the job, which then reflects in their attitude towards the organisation. As such, job satisfaction is treated as central to effective job performance (Armour, 2014) in that job satisfaction may be able to produce or enhance positive performance among the employees.

Daft and Lewin (2008) and Lee, Miller, Kippenbrock, Rosen and Emory (2017) established a positive link between job satisfaction and final job outcomes. Their research built on job satisfaction conceptualizations by adding the notion that the occurrence of pleasant moments in the working environment could be transformed into positive attitudes. Lee, Miller, Kippenbrock, Rosen, and Emory (2017), Sheldon and King (2001) added that a person with a positive attitude one that looks for activities that lead to improvement and is always thinking about making things better. Positive attitude is important because it reflects the strength of the human resource function and can be used as a fundamental in developing and managing the success of organisational performance (Nelson & Cooper, 2007; Turner, Barling, & Zaharatos,
2002). Therefore, positive attitudes are important to consider in recruiting as they are likely to be associated with future improvements in organisational retention rates.

Other scholars associate job satisfaction with positive final job outcome. For instance, job satisfaction has a positive correlation with organisation quality management (Menezes, 2012). In this paper, quality management is measured in terms of job enrichment and high involvement. Their findings revealed that job satisfaction has a positive correlation with job enrichment while there is a weak positive correlation with high involvement. Both variables are job characteristics related.

Another finding on job satisfaction and well-being is by Yahyagil (2015), whose research was conducted in a Turkish context; it revealed that job satisfaction leads to in life. Job satisfaction was assessed in terms of job values including autonomy, achievement, enjoyable and compliance to rule/policy.

In summary, two streams of area can be extracted from the job satisfaction research: antecedents and final job outcome. The antecedents include all the factors that can potentially change job satisfaction. Therefore, as in Herzberg and Maslow’s, motivational theories, employees need to fulfil their needs and wants in order to make them satisfied. In this thesis, I explore whether antecedents need to be identified prior to an employee’s beginnings a new job search in order to improve the clarity of the process. The second stream is the impact of job satisfaction on final job outcomes. In order to have a short term and long-term return. In the short term, the employees increase the rate of retention, improve the talent management of the organisation and
commitment is improved. In the long term, it can be seen as a tool to improve the quality of management where within this context, customer service can be improved, the cost of recruiting can be maintained (Menezes, 2012). Specific dimensions used in the measurement of job satisfaction are discussed in the following section.

2.3.1. Measuring Job Satisfaction

It is possible to measure job satisfaction by a variety of methods; by questionnaires, individual or group interviews, and exit interviews. Numerous studies have relied on questionnaires to measure job satisfaction, with some of these dating back over 50 years yet are still in use. For example, the Brayfield and Rothe (1951) job satisfaction index remains a frequently used measure (Table 1).
Table 1: Job Satisfaction Measurement from Brayfield and Rothe

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Overall Job Satisfaction Questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1.  My job is like a hobby to me.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2.  My job is usually interesting enough to keep me from getting bored.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3.  It seems that my friends are more interested in their jobs.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4.  I consider my job rather unpleasant.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5.  I enjoy my work more than my leisure time.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6.  I am often bored with my job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7.  I feel fairly well satisfied with my present job.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8.  Most of the time I have to force myself to go to work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9.  I am satisfied with my job for the time being.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. I feel that my job is no more interesting than others I could get.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. I definitely dislike my work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. I feel that I am happier in my work than most other people.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. Most days I am enthusiastic about my work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. Each day of work seems like it will never end.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. I like my job better than the average worker does.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. My job is pretty uninteresting.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. I find real enjoyment in my work.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. I am disappointed I ever took this job.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responses: (5) Strongly Agree; (4) Agree; (3) Undecided; (2) Disagree; (1) Strongly Disagree.

Source: Brayfield and Rothe (1951)

In Table 1, Brayfield and Rothe (1951) classified their questions into two categories with regard to work: pleasant (nine questions) and unpleasant (nine questions). The pleasant items all focus on elements of the job that appear to define a satisfying workplace. However, the unpleasant items include comparing the job with another's job and also the degree of how meaningful the job is to the employee. That the
Brayfield and Rothe device is still in use documents that these two characteristics of work, pleasantness and meaningfulness, remain relevant to understanding job satisfaction.

Another example of the questionnaire approach is the Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire (MSQ) developed by Weiss, Dawis, England and Lofquist (1967). This metric focus on measuring intrinsic (I) and extrinsic (E) motivation, but also identifies various subdimensions of motivation (see Table 2). Additionally, it also yields an overall satisfaction score. Items are identified as indicators of either intrinsic (I) or extrinsic (E) motivation. (A identifying tag for each has also been included.)
Table 2: Job Satisfaction Measurement from Weiss et al.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minnesota Satisfaction Questionnaire</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>In my present job, this is how I feel about:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Being able to keep busy all the time (activity, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. The chance to work alone on the job (independence, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The chance to do different things from time to time (variety, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. The chance to be “somebody” in the community (social status, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. The way my boss handles his men (supervision-human relations, E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. The competence of my supervisor in making decisions (supervision-technical, E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. Being able to do things that don’t go against my conscience (moral values, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. The way my job provides for steady employment (security, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. The chance to do things for other people (social service, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. The chance to tell people what to do (authority, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11. The chance to do something that makes use of my abilities (ability utilisation, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12. The way company policies are put into practice (company policies and practices, E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>13. My pay and the amount of work I do (compensation, E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14. The chances for advancement on this job (advancement, E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>15. The freedom to use my own judgement (responsibility, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>16. The chance to try my own methods of doing the job (creativity, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>17. The working conditions (working conditions, E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>18. The way my co-workers get along with each other (co-workers, I)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>19. The praise I get for doing a good job (recognition, E)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>20. The feeling of accomplishment I get from the job (achievement, I)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Responses: (1) Very dissatisfied; (2) Dissatisfied; (3) I can’t decide whether I am satisfied or not; (4) Satisfied; (5) Very satisfied.

Source: Weiss et al. (1967)
Weiss et al. (1967) measured job satisfaction based on what they construed as aspects of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation. Intrinsic motivation is defined as doing something because it is interesting or enjoyable. This characteristic of intrinsic motivation has been used in subsequent research and is a phenomenon peculiar to the individual or the relation between individual and activities (Mazahir & Khalid, 2017; Ryan & Deci, 2000). Thus, intrinsic motivations are both individual (seen as busy, independence, and creativity, for example) and from the aspect of the interrelationships between individual and activities (e.g., co-workers, social service, and social status).

Previous scholars have defined extrinsic motivation as doing something that has a relationship to something outside the individual, like supervising in a technical capacity (Ryan & Deci, 2000). In self-determination theory, extrinsic motivation is involved with the process of internalisation and integration of values and behavioural regulation (Deci & Ryan, 1985), such as when an employee adopts the organisational values relevant to their job and its execution (e.g., loyalty to the company). When fostering those process (internalisation and integration), the employees’ internalisation and integration are actions that result in a transformed self, one that fits the organisation better. The greater the internalisation of values and actions, the more determination to contribute the employee will have, and the greater the improvement in self-perception and quality of engagement (Adam et al., 2017). As measured in the Weiss et al. questionnaire, this type of transformation of the employee is gauged in terms of supervision, policies, compensation, advancement and working conditions. The degree to which these organisational characteristics might be evident could be
influential in a job seeker's decision to pursue a new position and to accept one if offered.

Still other assessment tools have been designed to measure job satisfaction. Ducharme and Martin (2000) developed a questionnaire that assesses social support in workplace to cope with the employees’ stress. Social support comprises two dimensions: emotional and instrumental support. In emotional support, the measures are represented in terms of actions that can build confidence in employees like caring, friendliness and listening to their problem. Instrumental support is measured in terms of offering helps in physical method such as a dinner invitation and tangible help. This is similar with Karasek and Theorell (1990). They developed questions for assessing job satisfaction based on three different aspects of social support which job demand are, job decision latitude and mental strain. Instrumental includes salary, while emotional includes supervision and peer relationships. Together, these elements focus on the social support in workplace. Increased social support allows employees to better cope with stress in the job environment, where high levels of stress lead to lower job satisfaction and work motivation. However, in Dunnett, Campbell and Hakel (1967) the measurement in social support is also includes policy and working conditions. In addition, specific aspects of the job itself were examined. Their assessment of job satisfaction is based on five different aspects of job content (recognition, responsibility, advancement, the job itself, and achievement) and six different aspects of job context (salary, job security, supervision, peer relationships, company policy, and working conditions).
Job satisfaction also associated with salary, current working conditions, and the job itself. Salary, current working conditions and the job itself reflecting the job content and context (Herzberg, 1966, Dunnett et al, 1967). Both job content and context are important factors in influencing job satisfaction (Armstrong ,1971; Pearson & Chong 1997). Research on salary, current working conditions and the job itself is widespread in job satisfaction and motivation research (for example, Herzberg, 1966; Dunnett et al., 1967; Armstrong, 1971; Ellis, 1996; Pearson & Chong, 1997; Danish & Usman, 2010; Choo et al., 2012). Even recent research, such as Nakajima et al., (2017), conducted in Japan, have found that social support is important in raising job satisfaction.

It has also been argued that an increase in job satisfaction is likely to result in a rise in worker productivity (Shikdar & Das, 2003; Wright & Cropanzano, 1997). Job satisfaction thus appears to also involve the emotional state with which a person perceives a variety of features of his/her work or the work environment (Robbins, 2001; Dunnette, Campbell & Hakel, 1967). Such perceptions are likely to have a major impact on the person’s life beyond their work for an organisation. Dawson (2005) revealed that employee satisfaction is associated with positive employee behaviour that can have an impact on the organisation; satisfied employees are likely to generate feelings of loyalty to their employer. It could be assumed that employees are satisfied if their expectations are achieved. Carr (2005) argued that expectations are consequences of motivation (Carr, 2005). Motivation is thus connected to both expectations and satisfaction at work.
Indeed, all the measurements discussed above focus on factors that seem able to motivate employees. However, to this point the discussion has been focussed on motivation as it refers work. The question remains whether it can be extended for use in examining the motivation to search.

2.4 Definitions of Motivation

There are numerous definitions of motivation. Muniapan and Satpathy (2010) note that motivation has been defined as: (1) “the psychological process that gives behaviour purpose and direction” (Kreitner, 1995); (2) “a predisposition to behave in a purposive manner to achieve specific, unmet needs” (Buford, Bedeian & Lindner, 1995); (3) “the will to achieve” (Bedeian, 1993) (p.651).

Greenberg and Baron (2003) divided their definition of motivation into three parts: (1) forces influencing an individual's positive actions; (2) decision on behavioural outcome; and (3) retain a desired behaviour and exploring on how to achieve the set target. Halepota (2005) defines motivation as “a person’s active participation and commitment to achieving the prescribed results” (p16). Using this definition, Halepota attached motivation to goals, which could include organisational goals. This suggests that the motivation of individuals is important for organisations to function well. Without motivation employees will not offer their best, resulting in the company’s performance being less effective. The various definitions above provide the researcher with keywords helpful in understanding the role of motivation in job seeking behaviour.
It is clear from the definitions presented above that motivation is fundamental for employees to obtain a job satisfaction. This is because motivation might influence employees to perform the better jobs and also relative to the processes they might engage in to deal with their unmet expectations. If the degree of unmet expectations is significant enough, then employees might be motivated to either perform their role better in the organisation, perform a different role, or to decide to seek alternative employment (Pinder, 2014). Employee motivation plays a crucial role in organisational success because it is likely to be more successful than simply instructing them in the tasks required of them (Bricker & Tollison, 2011).

2.4.1 The Role of Motivation

Motivated employees are essential for ensuring the operational health of an organisation because they help businesses to succeed by being more productive (Almacik et al., 2012; Dysvik & Kuvaas, 2011; Benabou & Tirole, 2003; Argyle, 1989; Gruenberg, 1980). Motivated employees contribute to making an organisation more valuable and profitable (Danish & Usman, 2010). However, to be effective in their role of enhancing their employees' efforts, it is important for a manager to understand what factor contribute to the work motivation of employees. Be fitting this thesis context, the managers should understand their potential employees’ motivation in the context of job search. By providing the necessary motivation components in the job search process, it may be a tool to attract potential employees to apply for an available position. To have a good fit between the demand for employees and supply from the organisation is a key point in the success of a recruiting process. The demands of employees may be job enrichment and pleasantness of workplace. The
supply from the organisation is what is offered to the employees, such as salary and the job functions and responsibilities.

Of all the functions a manager performs, motivating employees is arguably the most complex. Employees’ motivation may not be consistent, as it changes over a career and according to situational factors (Bowen & Radhakrishna, 1991). For example, employees with a higher salary may be less motivated by more money (Kovach, 1987). We can hypothetically extend this idea by applying it to job search efforts. It is possible that after a person has obtained certain salary, changing jobs is less likely to motivated by a need to increase income than by other concerns. This aspect of the motivation for change has received little attention from researchers focussing on job search in the literature. Therefore, the understanding of intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors may cause some changes in employee motivation.

2.4.2 Intrinsic Motivation

There are many ways to define intrinsic motivation. Deci (1975) explained it as motivation to perform or behave hat arises within the individual (inherited personality, experience and environment surroundings) possibly leading to satisfaction. Deci and Ryan (1985) emphasised that activities spurred by intrinsic motivation will be performed voluntarily, without thinking of getting any form of return ( external reward). Similarly, for Utman (1997), intrinsic motivation occurs when an individual is interested in performing a job and engaged in it for the sake of the work itself. Intrinsic motivation, then, comes from the innate psychological needs
of competence and self-determination (Deci & Ryan, 1985). Herzberg (1968) recognised that at least some motivation comes from within an individual and built his theory around that understanding. Indeed, intrinsic motivation is what ultimately leads to individuals experiencing feelings of competence and self-determination and thereby a sense of satisfaction.

From the definitions, it seems that intrinsic motivation is enjoyable and exciting activities (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Taufik et al., 2015). These events may give satisfaction and likely to stimulate behavioural engagement (Legault, 2016; Venhoveen et al., 2013; De Groot & Steg, 2010; Pelletier et al., 1998). Beyond pleasure and satisfaction, behavioural engagement may be stimulated by an internal feeling of obligation (Lindenberg, 2001). In practical terms, the employee is obligated to internalise and follow the rules of the organisation, its principles and values, when engaging with other employees in the environment, (Van der Werff et al., 2013).

In the work context, Herzberg (1966; 1956) discovered that employees tend to be satisfied with the intrinsic value factors of the content of the job itself, such as achievement, recognition, the work, responsibility and advancement. Previous researchers note that intrinsic motivation factors are able to improve the performance of job tasks completed by the employees (Almacik et al., 2012; Hayati & Caniago, 2012; Tella et al., 2007; Helepota, 2005; Benabou & Tirole, 2003; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Gallagher & Einhorn, 1976; Herzberg, 1966:1956). Also, intrinsic motivation contributes to the individual’s having fun and enjoying creativity in doing their work/job (Schmidhuber, 2010). In addition, intrinsic motivation results in employees’ job satisfaction (Ceci & Kumar, 2016; Gruenberg, 1980).
It is clear that the literature reinforces the assumption that intrinsic motivation leads to job satisfaction in many individuals (Herzberg, 1956; 1966), which subsequently leads to good job performance (Hayati & Caniago, 2012; Deci & Ryan, 1985). The relationship between job performance and job satisfaction has been documented in the work of Springer (2011), Hancer and George (2003) and Iaffaldano and Muchinsky (1985). Job performance and job satisfaction generate positive attitudes (Linz & Semykina, 2012), the result of which is the successful recruitment because of the efforts made to provide the best fit between the employee and the organisation (Breaugh, 2012; Barber, 1998).

The discussion above focuses on the relationship between intrinsic motivation and final job outcomes. In the research literature, there is also a focus on the impact of intrinsic motivation on job search information, but few scholars have made this connection the focus of their work (Tso et.al., 2010; Ellis, 1996a; Armstrong, 1971). Besides intrinsic motivation, extrinsic motivation is also a contributing factor in influencing employees’ final job outcomes.

### 2.4.3 Extrinsic Motivation

Extrinsic motivation is driven by external sources such as rewards and environmental factors (Ryan & Deci, 2000; Pelletier et al., 1995). Herzberg (1956; 1955) related extrinsic motivation to job dissatisfaction. He argued that when employees feel dissatisfied, they discuss the elements related to the work environment they believe
create their dissatisfaction, such as company policy and administration, supervision, interpersonal relationships, work conditions and salaries. He called these "hygiene" factors or "maintenance sources" and encouraged organisations to maintain a healthy work environment by critically examining these influences and working to remove their negative potential. He saw this effort as essential for minimising dissatisfaction, which if not attended to would lead to a decrease in performance. Herzberg (1966; 1956) posited that extrinsic motivation serves as a kind of maintenance factor. If the work situation is not maintained correctly, it will lead to dissatisfaction for the people in the situation. Hence such dissatisfying experiences need to be removed by improving the work environment’s “hygiene”. Hafiza et al. (2011) argued that extrinsic motivation is strongly related to extrinsic rewards. Extrinsic rewards can be outcomes such as salary/pay increases, financial incentives, bonuses, greater job security, more satisfying worker and employer relationships, company policy and the condition of the workplace. Extrinsic motivation also seems to relate to employee social development (Chard et al., 2012).

The discussion above identifies factors that generate extrinsic motivation as opposed to those that are components of the job the employee is performing. These factors include salary, peer relationships, supervision, workplace conditions and company policy. Also, it is likely that there is a relationship between extrinsic and intrinsic motivation. For example, Deci and Ryan (1985; 2000) stress that extrinsic factors can increase intrinsic motivation. Thus, extrinsic motivation, and intrinsic motivation, are seen as necessary components of the current research framework. The empirical findings below also reinforce how extrinsic and intrinsic motivation factors play their role in the working environment.
2.4.4 Prior Studies on Intrinsic and Extrinsic Motivation.

Different job types and / or job levels have been used as construct components for measuring intrinsic or extrinsic motivation. For example, Armstrong (1971) found that engineers were happy with the intrinsic motivation factors, while assemblers were satisfied with the extrinsic motivation factors. Similarly, Nujjoo and Meyer (2012) found that a higher ranking professional employee was more motivated by intrinsic rewards, compared to the lower ranking technical employees who were more likely to identify extrinsic rewards as predominant in generating their job satisfaction. In contrast, Kaufman (1980) found that both higher ranking and lower ranking accountants emphasised intrinsic and extrinsic factors to the same degree when reporting on their motivations related to both job satisfaction and job performance.

Therefore, the argument remains whether intrinsic motivation as more salient for employees in higher ranking positions and extrinsic motivations are more salient for lower ranked employees cannot be generalised. Given this inconsistency, it is prudent to examine the variety of motivation theories appearing in the literature.

2.4.5 Introduction to Motivation Theories

Five major approaches have led to a better understanding of motivation: Maslow's (1943) need-hierarchy theory; Skinner's (1953) reinforcement theory; Herzberg's (1956) two-factor theory; Vroom's (1964) expectancy theory; and Adams' (1965) equity theory. A brief overview of each of these theories is explained below.

Maslow’s theory (1943) proposes five levels of needs that motivate behaviour: physiological, safety, social, ego, and self-actualizing. Initially, Maslow (1943)
insisted that the lowest level needs had to be satisfied before the next level needs would motivate a person's behaviour. It has since been recognised that needs at different levels can operate simultaneously (Zhou, 2016). For example, argues that all five levels of needs constitute very basic needs for each and are also important in contributing to an individual's overall happiness (Zhou, 2016).

Maslow developed the theory proposing that people's needs these changed over time, with need fulfilment fundamental for their personal growth. However, the theory was developed via observation of a small number of people, and not in a business context. Also, Maslow appeared to assume that all people are similar in their motivations and thus universality of his theory (Mawere, Mubaya, Van Reisen, Van Stam, 2016; Graham & Messner, 1998).

Graham and Massner (1998), noted that Maslow's theory 1) sees all humans as similar in the means for fulfilling their basic and growth needs; 2) is not concerned with motivation (preliminary to behaviour) but rather with satisfactions (succeeding behaviour) and note; 3) there are limited empirical findings that supported Maslow's theoretical model. Sommers and Satel (2005) have pointed out that as a consequence of scholarly criticism, the theory is no longer taken seriously in the field of academic psychology. Mawere et al. (2016) suggest that the hierarchy of needs theory cannot be applied in some cultures where behaviour might be motivated by relationships, bonding within the community, acknowledgement of authority and an emphasis on the sharing of culture. If that is the case, then there may be cultural variation in the motives for behaviour, so Maslow’s theory cannot be construed as having universal applicability.
Given the above-noted criticism, Maslow's theory is less likely to provide a meaningful explanation of the behaviours in the current study. There are three justifications for dismissing Maslow's theory as not matching this project's objectives: First, Maslow’s orientation treats all humans having similar motivations for their actions (Bouzenita & Boulanouar, 2016; Graham & Messner, 1998). In fact, the present research wants to examine the various background of employees’ perspectives towards job search motivation and job information search.

Maslow’s theory does not seem to be congruent with this current research objective. Secondly, the aim of the present study is to investigate on job motivation, whereas Maslow appeared to be more concerned with satisfaction (Bouzenita & Boulanouar, 2016; Graham & Messner, 1998). Satisfaction, while necessary, is not hypothesised to be a primary motivator of job search and the lack of empirical findings validating the theory leads this researcher to look elsewhere (Bouzenia & Boulanouar, 2016; Graham & Messner, 1998; Wahba & Bridwell, 1976). The lack of scientifically rigorous confirmation of Maslow's view increases concern that reliance on this theory would reduce the validity of the present project.

Skinner's reinforcement theory has been utilised to study motivation for quite some time (Rainey, 2000). Reinforcement methodology is a process theory; the perspective emphasises that learning outcomes are gained through reinforcement of desired behaviours. The reinforcement works as a control mechanism over individual action (Skinner, 1953). Skinner (1953) and his like-minded colleagues classified reinforcements into four categories: 1) positive reinforcement, whereby desired
behaviours were followed by positive consequences (for example, praise is given when an individual has performed the desired behaviour such as when an employee successfully reaches a monthly target sale), 2) negative reinforcement (for example, allowing an employee who has achieved a sales target to come in an hour late for the last week of the month), 3) positive punishment (such as a warning memo to employees who have not reached a sales target), and 4) negative punishment (giving zero allowance to those who have not yet reached a sales target). From a behavioural theory perspective, these mechanisms stimulate desired individual behaviour and contribute to the learning process. Reinforcements thereby are capable of generating desired behaviour and eliminating undesirable actions (Gill, 2016; Skinner, 1953). Reinforcement is thus able to mould the employee’s behaviour to better meet the employer's expectations (Strube & Strand, 2015) and contribute to the persistence of motivation among employees.

As a behaviourist, Skinner (1953) argued that individual behaviour can only be motivated by the external environmental, and not the internal one. Patrick, Turner and Satrati (2016) have a similar view as Skinner, arguing that students’ desired behaviour can be generated within the classroom environment that is created by their teacher.

As a consequence of the limitations noted in the above discussion, this researcher has decided not to employ Skinner’s reinforcement theory for this project. The primary reason for this is that Skinner’s theory is more concerned with the learning process that can shape and ultimately generate employees’ desired behaviours (Patrick et al., 2016; Strube & Strand, 2015; Skinner, 1953), rather than investigating the motivations that lead to job information seeking behaviour. So, Skinner's process
orientation is unable to explain the behaviours that represent this project's research objective.

Adams' (1965) equity theory was constructed to attempt to explain the perception of balance or equity between inputs (what people do for the organisation) and outputs (what they get from the organisation), such as pay equity in the work environment context (Buttner, Buttner, Lowe, & Lowe, 2017; Ryan, 2016). In that context, equity is described as the equivalent amount of reward received from an employer for the effort offered by employees (Adam, 1965). The more equal the reward as perceived by the employee, the more motivated the employee (Guzak, Crandall, & Alavinejad, 2017).

This theory is concerned with the equity of resources allocation to both employees and organisation. It proposes that every individual value equal treatment. In Adams (1965), the absence of equity contributes to distress experience and lead to repair equity in relationships. The concept of an exchange relationship is more like a barter system; effort is made by an employee; the employer returns it in reward. An effort made by the employee is the example regarding input. The input refers to the contribution made by employees to the relational exchange such as time, education, experience, ability, personal sacrifice and many other contributions. Reward that is derived from that exchange relationship is one of the outcomes suggested by Adams (1965). An issue refers to final job outcomes such as job responsibility, reputation, job security, employees benefit and much more possible final job results.
In general, the idea of equity theory is about comparisons and judgements of efforts invested into work and the compensations received. The employee will compare the rewards they have received with other parties who are in similar exchange relationships, such as those occupying the same or similar positions in an organisation (Oldham, Kulik, Stepina, & Ambrose, 1986; Ronen, 1986; Adams, 1965). From that comparison, the perception of equity is made, either consciously or unconsciously (Campbell & Pritchard, 1976).

Adverse outcomes derived from such comparisons are likely to lead to stress for the employee (Huseman, Hatfield, & Miles, 1987). However, if the matter of equity is seen by employees as being taken seriously, the organisation is better able to predict how employees will manage their relationships with others hence to improve their level of motivation and satisfaction (Huseman et al., 1987).

The assumption that can be made on this Adams’ theory is that it is for employees to perceive justice in reward system, as it has a significant effect on employees’ performance (Ryan, 2016). The inequity leads to repair equity in a relationship (Taylor, Kluemper, & Sauley, 2009). The perceptions of equity may be varied from one to another employee. The one with positive values always feels that compensation offered by the company is equal to other employees’, while some views not (Carrell & Dittrich, 1978).

Adams’ equity theory of motivation does not match the goals of the present research project it is less concerned with motivation for seeking alternative employment. Equity theory focuses on the perception of balance between inputs and outputs,
suggesting that satisfaction is a dependent (Rynes, Gerhart, & Minette, 2004; Merriman, Turner, Galizzi, & HaynesBaratz, 2016). Because it is not concerned directly with motivation, equity theory does not fit the research goals of this present research effort.

Vroom’s Expectancy theory describes a process of selecting one behavioural options over others. Vroom (1964) conceptualised his theory as having three components: force, valence and expectancy. The formula describing this theory is Effort = V(valence) x E(expectancy). Effort is the amount of force to be generated in reaching one’s goal. Valence can be described as the attractiveness of the goal, where the measurement ranges from +1, indicating a highly attractive goal, to -1, which indicates a highly unattractive outcome. Expectancy is defined as the employee’s assessment of the possibility of achieving their goal. Expectancy is assessed as between 1 and 0 where 1 represents the confidence that the goal can be achieved, while 0 indicates the employee sees the goal as impossible to achieve. A completely achievable goal (where E = 1) results in effort being equal to the degree of attractiveness of the goal. In contrast, an impossible goal thereby leads to a situation where zero effort will be applied to the job, regardless of how attractive the goal might be to the employee.

The objective of this theory is to maximize the employees’ pleasure and minimize employees’ pain. This type of motivation leads the employees to reach at their maximal desired outcome (Redmond, 2010). Vroom (1964) proposed a theory that concerns with calculating the effort invested in performing one’s job.
The calculated value for this effort arguably represents a proxy measure of motivation. This theory helps the employee to achieve the targeted goal (Marriner-Tomey, 2004) depending on how highly they value it. Higher expectation predicts more effort towards achieving positive rewards leading to greater motivation. Conversely, the more negative the reward the less likely the employee is to be motivated. The theory can make a prediction of the likelihood of the less or greater effort of an employee (Gyurko, 2011).

Tam (2017) notes that Vroom’s theory provides three relationships that would have the potential to strengthen the behaviour of an employee; a positive correlation between 1) efforts and achievement, 2) good job performance and award or 3) the obtained result and award. These connections indicate that energy and expectancy are crucial due to a presumed ability to modify, perhaps to improve motivation. It seems that Vroom’s theory is best used for the aim of final job outcome (to see how motivation (in context Vroom) play a role in stimulating positive final job outcome). However, for the purpose of job search, the effort such as job clarity and intensity are needed to generate success in the process of a job search (Lippman & McCall, 1976).

In summary, Vroom’s theory provides a formula that may be useful to predict the amount of effort that can be expected to generate a particular return. For this thesis, however, Vroom’s theory is not likely to contribute in a meaningful way, as the present effort is not concerned with an assessment of the effort invested in the job search proposed here. Vroom’s theory is focussed on the process of calculating the level of effort, interpreted here as a proxy of motivation, that employees should have.
to achieve a goal, whereas the present research effort is focussed on identifying the factors that contribute to motivation for a change of jobs.

The last theory of motivation to be presented here was developed by Herzberg and first published in 1959. Though now over five decades old, the theory is still in use. This is especially so in the satisfaction-dissatisfaction research stream. For example, Nakajima, Shoji, Iwaasa, and Mizuno (2017) have utilised it and they conducted a research in a school and they found that supervision mainly affected junior students’ dissatisfaction. The theory has also been relied upon in motivation and performance research, for example, Yamuna, & Devi, (2016) highlighted that motivation is crucial to increase the performance of employees at workplace.

Herzberg divided motivation into two factors: motivator and hygiene (Herzberg, Mausner & Snyderman, 1959). He argued that motivator factors such as achievement and recognition produced intrinsic job satisfaction. Hygiene, or extrinsic factors such as pay and job security, produced job dissatisfaction. In the job motivation context, this theory provides employers with the aspects of work that need to be improved amongst the range of characteristics defining the work, suggesting that motivation is derived from the job itself and the working environment. A comparison of Herzberg’s view with that of Maslow suggests that both emphasise the need for job content in order to generate motivation. Though they are quite similar with regard to job content, context and perspective are quite different between the two perspectives; for Maslow, the perspective is a general context across individuals, while for Herzberg, the coverage is quite particular to existing employees in a business context.
In summary, the discussion presented above has outlined fundamental features of Maslow’s hierarchy of needs theory, reinforcement theory such as that developed by Skinner and others, Adam’s equity theory, Vroom’s expectancy theory, and Herzberg’s two-factor theory. Different perspectives on motivation, such as each of these orientations portrays, work in differently defined contexts and perspectives, and are briefly summarised. First, Maslow’s hierarchy of need theory emphasises basic needs and growth to higher levels of needs, though such advancement depends upon a chronology of fulfilling lower level needs, from basic needs then on to personal growth needs. Theories of reinforcement focus on forces that compel desired behaviour by controlling the consequences of behaviour. Adam’s equity orientation applies the concept of fairness in rewarding employees. Vroom attempted to add a quantitative dimension, as his expectancy theory allows the employer to calculate an employee’s effort, and consequently the force necessary to perform a goal-directed behaviour. Additionally, and qualitatively, employees can identify how much (or not) they value the goal (valence), which determines their motivation. Finally, Herzberg’s two-factor theory classified motivation into two categories, hygiene (extrinsic) and motivator (intrinsic), that should be considered when examining employees’ motivation.

As noted above, most of these philosophical positions are not suitable for investigating the question asked in this thesis. However, Herzberg’s concepts of extrinsic and intrinsic motivators are well-suited to the present research hypothesis, as these two concepts are directly relevant to the core concepts investigated here. The present research therefore, utilises the Herzberg perspective as its fundamental motivational theory.
In more general terms, both Maslow and Herzberg show that “content” stimulates motivation. However, Maslow emphasised a universal application whereby each employee must satisfy basic needs first then move on to growth needs. Herzberg differed, emphasising that each person had a right and an ability to choose intrinsic or extrinsic elements as motivation drivers in their effort at achieving satisfaction. This is parallel with the present study’s objective; to examine job motivation factors from the perspective of individuals having different backgrounds. Hence, the Herzberg theory of motivation is well-matched to the aims of the present research.

2.4.6 On the Suitability of Herzberg’s Theory of Motivation

The motivation theory developed by Herzberg is well known and widely used (Abbah et al., 2014; Wright, 1989). This theory focuses on the content of one’s work that motivates employees. Content in this theory refers to “what” motivates employees to do a job; either from the perspective of the job itself or the working environment (Herzberg, 1956), noting that there is more than one source of motivation, and that motivation can be generated from different sources.

The initial study by Herzberg and his colleagues was conducted in a Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania psychological centre. Interviewing 203 engineers and accountants who were asked to describe their life and work situations, and also asking for descriptions of their feelings about their workplace (Nayeli, 1994). The results of the interviews showed that when people talk about their good feelings and job satisfaction, they refer to mental factors present in their workplace. These included such things as achievement, company and peer recognition, characteristics of the work itself, their
degree of responsibility and opportunities for advancement. These factors were called the “sources of satisfaction” motivators because they are necessary for essential progress in job performance. Herzberg (1966) also noted that when people discuss job dissatisfaction, they referred to phenomena related to the organisation, such as the policies framing the business, administrative behaviour, the level and types of employee supervision, the nature and types of their interpersonal relationships, their working conditions, and the salary levels paid by their employer. These factors are important for encouraging an organization to maintain a healthy work environment (Manjunath & Urs, 2014; Anderson & Kyprianou, 1994; Cartwright et al., 1993) and will doubtless have an impact on how employees manage their work and fit the organisation.

Herzberg (1966; 1956) thought that job satisfaction and dissatisfaction originated from two different sets of job context variables. They suggest when people feel dissatisfied with their work, their dissatisfaction is related to the environment where they work. On the other hand, when people feel satisfied, it is because their satisfaction is related to the work itself (Hersey & Blanchard, 1993), “the work itself” refers to the actual doing of the tasks that are defined within the employee’s role. Herzberg conceptualised these paradigms as separate to one another, and thus, factors associated with job satisfaction are completely different from those related to job dissatisfaction.

Intrinsic motivation refers to growth needs that are components of the job itself. As noted above, these include recognition for one’s efforts, the achievement of the employee, their degree of responsibility, advancement through the ranks of their role
with the organisation, and characteristics of the job such as how interesting or challenging it is (Cho & Perry, 2012; Herzberg, Mausner, & Bloch Snyderman, 2005). According to Herzberg’s theory, these factors are inherently interesting and enjoyable. Thus, employees will likely put good effort into working at their capacity until they are satisfied, corroborating that intrinsic factors work as motivators for employees. (Herzberg, Mausner, & Bloch Snyderman, 2005). This theory would thereby argue that the only way to boost motivation (and therefore, satisfaction) is by employees fulfilling the factors that comprise their intrinsic motivation (Wright, 1989). Perhaps somewhat surprisingly, if the intrinsic motivation factors are absent, satisfaction also vanishes (Herzberg, 1971; Herzberg, Mausner, & Bloch Snyderman, 2005).

These characteristics of intrinsic motivation constitute a necessary framework for understanding job satisfaction because they provide a framework for describing the conditions under which employees are likely to find satisfaction and dissatisfaction (Adam et al., 2007; Herzberg, 1966). Intrinsic motivation or growth needs are important factors that may contribute to an employees’ satisfaction and in turn, their motivation.

Job theories in general appear to claim that job content and job enrichment provide situational characteristics that can increase work motivation (Hameed et al., 2014; Paul et al., 1969). These include, for example, characteristics such as responsibility, achievement, recognition, and advancement (Parson & Broadbride, 2006; Furnham, Forde & Ferrari, 1999; Wright, 1989). These can also be thought of as enrichments associated with a job. Sirot (1973) noted that job enrichment is able to correct
problems with workers’ skills and abilities. Hague (1985) emphasised that changes in job content could help if a problem with the job is monotony.

Ford (1969) however, pointed out that changing job content can provide a means to increase employee satisfaction. Ford’s viewpoint was that employees derive satisfaction from the work they do, and so it is certainly reasonable to suggest that monotony might compromise satisfaction. In addition to minimising monotony, Duffield et al. (2014) also noted that job enrichment is able to create meaningful career development opportunities. Thus, in relation to achieving a career target, it is important to have better, more satisfying job content.

Beyond satisfaction, Behling, Labovitz and Kosmo (1968) suggested that extrinsic factors can also lead to increased productivity. However, Herzberg (1959) earlier argued that only job content brings the type of productivity improvement sought by companies. Later, Herzberg (1966) claimed that a hygiene focusses, or enhancement of extrinsic factors is unlikely to increase productivity. He emphasised that only job content improvement is capable of increasing productivity.

Jurkiewicz et al. (1998) discovered that employees in supervisory and non-supervisory roles in the public sector had similar preferences for Herzberg’s (1956) job factors. Emmert and Taher (1992) conducted a study to compare the effects of intrinsic and extrinsic job factors on satisfaction, work involvement, and work motivation, of a sample of professional public-sector employees. Their results suggest that the best predictor of attitudes were the social relationships of the employees and the how well their intrinsic needs were fulfilled.
Buelens and Broeck (2007) also confirmed that public sector employees are less extrinsically motivated. Their results showed that differences in the levels of job position on position hierarchies are more important determinants of work motivation than sectoral differences. Their study also suggested that motivational differences can be explained by positive choices employees make to optimise work-life balance. Irum et al., (2012) explored the views of employees in the academic industry (Public vs Private sector). They investigated the relationships between work motivation and other variables such as salary, autonomy, hierarchical level, willingness to work, and a supportive working environment. They discovered that a supportive working environment and position on the hierarchic (rank) are important factors for motivating public sector employees.

Previous studies have also focussed on comparisons between job categories. For example, Armstrong (1971) revealed that intrinsic motivational factors were most important for engineers, whilst extrinsic motivation factors were seen as more important for assemblers. Ahmadi and Keshavarzi (2012) compared teachers, focussing on those teaching Islamic studies. Their research showed that these employees responded more to intrinsic than extrinsic motivational factors. Similarly, research conducted by Hayati and Caniago (2012) revealed that intrinsic motivation was necessary to Islamic banking employees. Kovach (1987) earlier explained that extrinsic motivation factors are essential for industrial employees job performance and satisfaction.

Herzberg's theory relies upon two factors that he argued were able to stimulate employees’ motivation in their work. Herzberg's construction of these factors takes
into account a broad range of potential motivators. For example, both monetary and non-monetary motivations are components of the hygiene factor. In a similar manner, Hossain and Hossain, (2012) and Mujah et al., (2011) highlight that rewards are the primary tool available for improving employees’ motivation for many situations. Money is tangible, employees are free to see, touch and count; these characteristics of money are very likely to be strong motivators for employees (Salisu et al., 2016). In the working environment, rewards are often used as incentives for performing a job well (Samina et al., 2011). However, the concept of motivation is more than simply monetary, as can be seen in the discussion of alternative theories of motivation above. Thus, both monetary and non-monetary bases for motivation, a feature of the Herzberg model, are appropriate here.

In summary, Herzberg’s theory is justified to be used as a platform for the current research project. This is because the theory offers flexibility in identifying and exploring the differing needs of the individual and the various motivations that are at play in the decisions made by employees. Herzberg’s theory reflects the presence of a number of different sets of job needs, as well as the presence of different sets of working conditions. Motivation for work is likely to be a reflection of both individual needs as well as the characteristics of the job they perform. The next section will present an overview of the concept of and research on job characteristics.
2.5 Introduction to Job Characteristics

The original formulation of job characteristics theory consists of four basic points (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Hackman & Lawler, 1971). Firstly, jobs can be defined adequately by the use of five task dimensions. These are task identity, skill variety, task significance, autonomy, and feedback from the job. Secondly, the extent to which these five work dimensions are present in a job situation determines how the employee will experience three psychological reactions. The combination of task identity, skill variety, and task significance, produce the psychological state of experienced meaningfulness. Autonomy provides the psychological state of responsibility, and feedback creates the psychological state of knowledge of results.

Thirdly, these relationships are moderated by the strength of the individual’s growth needs. Finally, the extent to which all three psychological states exist also depends on the force of the individual’s growth needs intrinsic motivation, general job satisfaction, good performance, loyalty, satisfaction with growth, and low absenteeism.

Therefore, these four points --task dimensions, psychological reactions, moderation by growth needs, and the strength of various job-relevant characteristics -- argue that good job characteristics are able to produce and enhance job satisfaction. This is likely to be because employees' psychological needs can be achieved through working in situations where job characteristics reinforce healthy psychological states. All four points were concerned in job characteristics representing the primary and the growth
need in motivation. Past empirical research on the relationships between job
characteristics, motivation and satisfaction, are discussed more thoroughly below.

2.5.1 Past empirical research on Job Characteristics

To see whether certain job characteristics are a fit for individual employees or not, it
is necessary first to measure the goodness-of-fit. Goodness-of-fit indicates that
employees can match themselves with the information provided by the company by
being able to match their knowledge, abilities and skills to it. Goodness-of-fit enables
employees to enhance their capacity to perform work efficiently (Hackman &
Oldham, 1980). When an employee is performing well on the job, an experience of
positive feelings is produced, which results in employee's having positive motivation
and consequently experiencing significant self-reward. Conversely, when an
employee has inadequate knowledge and skills, then the employee is likely to
experience frustration, unhappiness and little motivation. For this employee, the job is
important but if it cannot be performed well, this is likely to lead to a withdrawal from
the job. Kulik et al. (1987) suggested that low motivation does not offer much
opportunity for the three psychological states to be experienced at work. As a
reminder, Kulik et al. (1987) stated that positive motivation is essential because it
offers employees the opportunity to gain those three-psychological state, (experienced
meaningfulness, responsibility, knowledge of results).

A psychological need is also critical in determining how strongly an employee
responds to a high motivation job (Hackman & Oldham, 1976; Hackman & Lawler,
1971). Those employees with intense psychological needs will most likely appreciate
and respond to the opportunities given in a job, thus achieving satisfaction and enhancing positive motivation.

Finally, job characteristics can predict employees’ reactions to their jobs. Positive motivation is affected by an employee’s satisfaction concerning job context; pay job policy, co-workers, and supervision (Hackman & Oldham, 1976). This statement agrees with Herzberg's (1966; 1956) view, who noted that if employees are not satisfied with one or more of these job context aspects, then they will not respond to the job. Job context dissatisfaction may distract an employee from doing their job effectively, as the employee’s energy is used instead to cope with the problem of their negative experiences with their job.

In summary, only individuals who are sufficiently competent to perform the work are predicted to prosper with job characteristics that provide high motivation. In contrast, employees with inadequate knowledge and skills and deep psychological needs will have low motivation to perform and will be unable to experience the positive outcomes predicted by job characteristics theory.

Following the development of job characteristics theory, Sims et al. (1976) argued that solving problem of measuring job characteristics is essential to at least three areas of management research. Firstly, there is the issue of how job characteristics influence the satisfaction and performance of workers. Indeed, many efforts aimed at developing job enrichment and job enlargement programmes are directed towards redesigning jobs to reduce the problems of boredom and alienation at the workplace. Redefining jobs will hopefully in turn increase productivity. Secondly, the
psychological study of work motivation found that non-routine jobs are likely to motivate individual behaviour (Hulin, 1971). Thirdly, the study of leadership has frequently ignored the influence of task characteristics on the relationship between leader behaviour and subordinate satisfaction and performance (Sims et al., 1976).

A large proportion of research undertaken between 1976 and 2011 has investigated the effects of job characteristics on a variety of job-related variables. These have included employee satisfaction, work motivation, and performance. The table below summarises the relationships investigated by this body of literature, with representative authors indicated as well. A substantial number of these researchers have suggested ways in which jobs can be designed to enhance productivity and the quality of work life.
Table 3: Past Research on Job Characteristics (1976-2011)

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Author(s)</th>
<th>Area</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Hackman and Oldham (1976)</td>
<td>Job characteristics and job performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Karasek et al. (1998)</td>
<td>Job content and stress in workplace</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Judge et al. (2000)</td>
<td>Job characteristics and job satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Saavedra and Kwun (2000)</td>
<td>Job characteristics and personality effects (enthusiasm, fatigue, nervousness and relaxation),</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5</td>
<td>Kiffin-Petersen and Cordery (2003)</td>
<td>Job characteristics and teamwork</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6</td>
<td>Lambert (2004)</td>
<td>Job characteristics, job satisfaction and job commitment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7</td>
<td>Thomas et al. (2004)</td>
<td>Job characteristics and job satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8</td>
<td>Kahya (2007)</td>
<td>Job characteristics (working conditions) and job performance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9</td>
<td>Van den Broeck et al. (2008)</td>
<td>Job characteristics and withdraw – need satisfaction</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10</td>
<td>Morris and Venkatesh (2010)</td>
<td>Job characteristics and job satisfaction moderated by technology adoption</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>11</td>
<td>Cadwallader et al. (2010)</td>
<td>Job characteristics and innovation</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>12</td>
<td>Nahrgang et al. (2011)</td>
<td>Job characteristics motivating retention</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 3 shows the areas of research from several studies on job characteristics conducted between 1976 and 2011. All these studies have documented relationships that exist between various job characteristics and job outcomes. With the above discussion, job characteristics are referred to as a set of units which, if they fit with the employee, may lead to a particular job being satisfying. In relating job characteristics with Herzberg’s motivation theory, high motivation can be achieved if the job characteristics offered show: meaningfulness for employees, treated as a responsible by employees and employees gains some outcome from what they have put their effort into on the job.
Job characteristics theory is discussed in part of literature chapter for two reasons, firstly, to propose those job characteristics able to boost the employees’ motivation thorough enrichment and secondly, the previous literature on job characteristics theory is a bridge between Herzberg’s motivation theory and job information seeking. This is important as job information will be used as one of the variables in the present research. Job information is viewed as a mechanism to reveal characteristics to employees; assisting potential employees to match themselves to a job and to enhance their job satisfaction within the organisational setting.

2.6 Job Information

Job information describes the characteristics of the job and the organisation. Job information is used to determine whether the employee is looking for his or /her first job, is switching jobs, re-entering the job market, or just obtaining more information about a job (Dinet et al., 2012). Jovanovic (1979) also revealed that job information is necessary for job matching, and that lack of job information is associated with employee turnover. In contrast Parker (2014) and Lawler (1974) note that enriched job information related to positive job motivation and attitudes.

Whether switching to an alternative job or remaining in the current position, research indicates that enriched job information can develop employees’ attitudes (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978; Hackman & Oldham, 1975). Enriched job information can develop either positive or negative employee attitudes, depending on the salience and relevance of the information for the employees (Salancik & Pfeffer, 1978).
Armstrong (1971) suggested that job information can be classified into two categories: job content and job context. Ellis (1996b) stated that job-content information is “any information that characterises what people do in their jobs”, whilst job-context information is “any information that is not related to the content of the job but issues, such as salary, social conditions, and details about the organisation” (p. 1512). The section below discusses job content and context information in detail.

2.6.1 Job-Content Information

Job-content information includes recognition, achievement, advancement, responsibility and the work itself (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012; Armstrong, 1971; Herzberg et al., 1959). In Herzberg’s theory, recognition, achievement, advancement, responsibility and work itself are all aspects of intrinsic rewards. All of these factors are placed at a higher level when considering the motivation of human behaviour (Gallagher & Einhorn, 1976).

Porter and Lawler’s (1968) study (as cited in Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012) defined intrinsic rewards as the satisfaction that is achieved when an employee is doing his or/her job. Mottaz (1985) suggested that Herzberg’s motivator factors are non-monetary intrinsic rewards; that is: responsibility is a task reward and refers to the inherent aspects of an employee’s duties; recognition is a praise reward; and achievement, advancement and the work itself are overall growth rewards.

To conclude, this section has identified recognition, achievement, advancement, responsibility, and the work itself, as critical factors involved in motivating human
behaviour because they enable individuals to achieve success in doing their jobs (Tyagi 1985). The information on intrinsic motivation factors is crucial in the job search process; however, these vary from one individual to another. For example, individuals from a skilled occupational category prefer more intrinsic job information compared to those in the unskilled or semiskilled occupational category, in the job search process (Armstrong, 1971). This example shows that different categories of occupational groups tend to seek different types of job information. Previous findings reveal that as well as job content or intrinsic job information, job context information is also considered by individuals in their job search process.

2.6.2 Job Context Information.

Porter and Lawler’s (1968) job context factors are benefits obtained as a result of doing the job as cited in Nujjoo and Meyer, 2012. These include factors such as salary, job security, supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policy and working conditions (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012; Armstrong, 1971; Herzberg et al., 1959). Mottaz (1985) further categorised these factors; referring to interpersonal relationships and supervision as social rewards, and to salary and job security as organisational rewards.

The two factors of company policy and working conditions have also been considered in research about the job search process. Hinton (1968) and Dunnett, Campbell and Hakel (1967) defined company policy as policies and procedures of the organisation; and defined working conditions as good or poor physical surroundings on the job or the facilities available for doing work. Also, company policy and working conditions refer to conditions that surround the doing of that job (Tietjen & Myers, 1998).
Therefore, it is important that individuals, during the job search process, consider company policy and working conditions information in addition to salary, supervision, job security, and interpersonal relationships. Making healthy choices will help motivate individuals, which will, in turn, reduce tension while doing the job.

In summary, job context includes salary, supervision, job security, interpersonal relationships, company policy and working conditions. It is important that individuals during the job search process, consider all the job context elements because these might be used by individuals to motivate themselves, hence reducing tension while doing their job.

2.6.3. Job Content and Job Context Information

Both job content and job context factors do affect the behaviour of employees. For example, regarding selecting information during the job search process, Armstrong (1971) found that assemblers tend to select job context information in their job search process, while engineers tend to select job content information in their job search process. In recent research, Choo, Norsiah and Tan (2012) have shown that engineers prefer to focus on both job content and job context information in their job search process. Similarly, earlier research conducted by Kaufman and Fetters (1980) revealed that accountants also feel that both job content and job context information are important factors to consider in their job search process.

The findings on job search and job information are outdated. The most recent is by Choo, Norsiah and Tan (2012), but few others, even though the area still lacks
conclusive empirical findings. The existing findings show that job content and job context information are equally important in job search process and the selection of job information depends on employees’ basic needs or growth needs. They consider the available job information in their job search process because they are expecting to find job satisfaction in those prospective jobs. This association between job information and job search will be discussed in detail in the following sections.

2.7 Job Search

Historically, research on job search has developed as an alternative to the traditional neoclassical labour supply in Economic research. In Lippman and McCall’s (1976) view, the neoclassical framework is based on perfect information and expects that every unemployed individual looking for a job will find a job. Unfortunately, in reality, not everyone finds a job, even if they are active job seekers. As a result, the job search literature was developed and has produced a dynamic sequential process model (Lippman & McCall, 1976). The concept of dynamism in a job search is to incorporate the fact that job seekers are free to decide when to start and to stop their job search process.

The issues of clarity and job intensity are also receiving attention from previous job search scholars (for example, Wanberg et al., 2002, Kanfer et al., 2001). The clarity in job search refers to the job search objective, needs and as well as type of career desired. The increased clarity of job seekers may contribute to shorter times in the job search process (due to receiving job offer acceptance in short time). This shortening of the search timing results in increased job search intensity (Wanberg et al., 2002).
In other related research streams, job search theory relates to job search scholars have related job search information to economics information, such as wages (Huang & Bian, 2015; Bewley, 1998; Tobin, 1972). For example, Huang and Bian (2015) discovered that the nature of one’s job search network is related with entry-level wage attained. The effect of this network on entry-level salary is stronger for those changing jobs than for new job seekers.

Kasper (1967) and Gronau (1971) discovered the dynamic nature of the relationship between job search and search information in terms of wages. This relationship is affected by the age of the individual, where the closer employees are getting to retirement age, then the less they are concerned about improving wages over their current wages. This age-related trend does not apply if the individual is unemployed (Tobin, 1972). Bagger et al. (2014) and Burdett (1978) documented a relationship between wages and tenure towards the job search; the longer the employment period, the higher employees are loyal to the current organisation.

Following on, the research on a job search is expanded to encompass motivation and self-regulated process (Kanfer et al., 2001). Their proposed process begins with the identification of and commitment to the continuing employment goal, which then activates search behaviour to bring about that goal. Inevitably, job seekers will have a variety of backgrounds, which may have an impact on the nature of their job search efforts. Boswell et al. (2012) and Kanfer et al. (2001) classified primary backgrounds into three groups: (1) the new entrant who has not been employed before or who is a college graduate; (2) the unemployed due to dismissal or due to several unmet
working conditions; and (3) the employed. Boswell et al. (2012) summarised previous research that was focused on job search context factors (see Table 4).

From the findings, employed job seekers start their job search due to absence of the desired person attributes or situational factors in their existing job environment. This mismatch contributes to job dissatisfaction and ultimately to job search. The antecedents of employed job seekers are more on motivational-related and if these factors are not satisfied, it may lead to negative outcomes such as job turnover.

However, the research was limited to the motivational factors, the intention of job seeker and the outcome. The research would benefit from extension into to the type of information preferences in job seekers’ job search process.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job seeker subpopulation</th>
<th>Foundational literature</th>
<th>Theoretical framework</th>
<th>Example search objectives</th>
<th>Antecedents</th>
<th>Search behaviours and processes</th>
<th>Outcomes</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>New entrants (NE)</td>
<td>Job choice and recruitment</td>
<td>Image theory; signaling theory; self-regulation</td>
<td>Employment; negotiating leverage; compare employment to further education or remaining unemployed</td>
<td>Career planning; coping reactions (stress, locus of control, financial needs, job search self-efficiency); organisations’ recruitment efforts (job postings, campus visits, sponsorships)</td>
<td>Narrowing of search focus; comparing alternatives; submitting applications; evaluations</td>
<td>Interviews; offers; person-organisation (PO) and person-job (PJ) fit; starting salary; organisational commitment; intention to remain.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job loser</td>
<td>Unemployment and involuntary job loss</td>
<td>Theory of planned behaviour, self-regulation</td>
<td>Employment, satisfy requirements for governmental assistance; negotiating leverages; remain unemployed</td>
<td>Person attributes (personality traits, demographics/biographic, self-regulatory behaviours) situational factors (financial need, social support, social norms, family responsibilities, labour market demand)</td>
<td>Preparatory behaviours; active behaviours; intention to search; search intensity and effort.</td>
<td>Interviews; offers; reemployment; underemployment; PO and PJ fit; organisational identification; job satisfaction; intent to quit; search duration and persistence; exhaustion of unemployment benefits; psychological effects.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Employed job seekers</td>
<td>Employee turnover</td>
<td>Withdrawal models; theory of planned behaviour; self-regulation</td>
<td>New employment; negotiating leverage; develop a professional network; stay aware of alternatives/remain employable; compare alternatives to present situation</td>
<td>Person attributes (personality traits, demographics/biographic, human capital); situational factors (work attitudes; objective work elements, perceptions of work elements, external employment market)</td>
<td>Preparatory behaviours: active behaviours; intention to search; search intensity and effort</td>
<td>Turnover; elements of new job</td>
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Sources: Boswell et al (2012)
Crossley and Highhouse (2005) highlight that job search measures for new entrants should include assessing behaviour and are specifically related to collecting information on employment opportunities and to areas of academic study. Job search measures for unemployed job seekers (both among new entrants and in the context of job loss) include general search frequency (hours spent on job search effort) (Wanberg et al., 2010); and issues related to job search clarity including type of job they are seeking, what type of work they enjoy) (Zikic & Saks, 2009).

In all, the above findings show that there is a variety of job search behaviour and that the behaviour varies because people range from new entrants to employed job seekers. The relationship between employed job seekers and the job search is reviewed in the next section.

2.8. Employed Job Seekers and the Job Search

Some studies on job search have come from the economic perspective, and some are from the behavioural perspective. In the economic perspective, scholars have focused on wage information and quitting rates (Campbell, 2017; Burdett, 1978; Tobin, 1972;) and in the behaviour perspective they note that job search is because of the employee’s dissatisfaction towards their job motivation, both intrinsically or extrinsically (Lee et al., 1996; Mitchell et al., 2010). For the currently employed, the final decision for the job search process is either to remain with or to switch from the current position (Lee, & Mitchell, 1994; Lee et al., 1999; Lee et al., 1996; Mitchell et al.,2010 ). For instance, Mitchell et al. (2010) noted that engaged employees with extrinsic motivation is concerned with finishing their job search process by deciding to remain in their current job.
Active job search employees are more concerned with the importance of the job itself and the surroundings to improve their level of satisfaction and their well-being. Thus, if the alternative job does not match their job motivation target, then they remain with the present job (Mitchell et al., 2010; Hooft et al., 2004; Armstrong, 1971). Meanwhile, the relationships between job search and intention to leave the current position are stronger among the unemployed than the employed (Hooft et al., 2004).

Previous findings reveal that job search is influenced by financial needs and self-esteem needs (Blau, 1994). These findings are similar to traditional findings in job search theory, which is that financial needs play a significant role in influencing employees to search for an alternative job. Personality traits affect job search behaviour as well among the employed (Boudreau et al., 2001). All of these findings relating to employed job search show the pattern of the relationships between job seekers and job search activity. The specifics about their current job and job search is another facet to explore. The next sections examine the influence of job categories and responsibilities on job search.

2.9 Job Categories and Job Search

Schmidt and Strauss (1975) and Filer (1986) reported that job category was associated with an employee’s race, gender, education, experience, wages, personality, and self-preference. For example, the higher someone’s education level, the higher ranked job they were likely to have. Schmidt and Strauss and Filer also suggested that job
categories can be classified as white collar, blue collar, professional, managerial, technical and clerical, where each refers to its task and job characteristics.

Research by Filer (1986) produced the following findings and connections between job characteristics and what is valued by the employee including: (1) a salesman values wages upon starting a new job; (2) a clerical employee emphasises personal relationship skills when considering a new job; (3) managerial and technical employees value personal relationships, leadership, dominance, and the desire to supervise; (4) blue collar workers show lower levels of desire to control, and lower levels of emotional stability; and finally (5) service personnel value high levels of emotional stability, friendliness and thoughtfulness, but only low levels of security. Filer (1986) reported that different jobs are associated with different job characteristics and different paths to satisfaction, a view that might not transcend to the 21st century given the gender biases represented in his comments.

Based on Filer’s report, different job categories holding different needs and wants. Some intrinsically focussed and other extrinsically focussed. If the manager does not cater to the job categories’ specific need, some employees could be satisfied and others would not be satisfied. A discussion on variations in job responsibility levels is follows below. Like job categories, different levels of job responsibility may also influence job satisfaction (Cranny et al., 1992).
2.10 Levels of Job Responsibility

Manove (1997) define the level of job responsibility as “an index that measures the variation in the value of job outcomes over the feasible range of worker effort” (p.86). Manove (1997) and Robie, Ryan, Schmieder, Fernando and Smith (1998) classify job responsibility into two levels: (1) high level and (2) low level. The higher level of job responsibility tends to be more complex and tends to have a better working environment, pay, promotion prospects, supervision, autonomy and responsibility. Thus, it can be assumed that the higher the job position is, then the better the individual’s background will be, which in turn means that the individual will possess higher job responsibility whereas the individual in the lower job position always follows a similar daily job routine and has a less complex job responsibilities.

In previous research, however, various terms have been used to indicate high or low levels of job responsibility. For example, in their study of job responsibility in the U.K., Morse and Weiss (1955) categorised high and low levels of job responsibility as aligning with the middle-class and the working-class respectively. Morse and Weiss reported that members of the middle-class are more highly educated and therefore earn more money than those of the working-class. Members of the working-class in contrast, tend to choose work with tools, with the operation of machines, with lifting and carrying, jobs which appear to be more monotonous than those of the middle-class. The conclusion to draw from the above is that there are marked differences between the job middle-class (high responsibility) and the working-class (low responsibility).
The above discussion suggests that the types of jobs and the levels of job have identified critical variables in the research analysing differences or similarities in job outcome importance. Saleh and Lalljee (1969) provided evidence of this view nearly 45 years ago, suggesting “that job level is of more importance than gender as a determinant of job orientation” (p.469). They revealed that employees in higher level jobs rated intrinsic job outcomes as more important than did employees in lower level jobs.

Friedlander (1964) concluded that task-centred opportunities for self-actualisation were necessary to white-collar workers, while the social environment was crucial to blue-collar workers; however, self-actualisation opportunities were of secondary importance to them. Centres and Bugental’s (1966) findings were similar to Friedlander’s, where employees in lower level jobs ranked extrinsic motivation as their most important factor, and employees in higher level jobs ranked intrinsic motivation as their most important factor.

In contrast, Armstrong (1971) found that engineers and assemblers (representing two different occupational groups and levels, but the same function in an organisation) both saw job content (intrinsic) factors similarly: the results argue against the common stereotype held for semi-skilled, blue-collar workers, that is, that they merely trade their time at work and seek security and economic features to cope with life’s basic needs (p.63)

Unfortunately, Friedland (1964), Centres and Bugental (1966), and Armstrong (1971), all failed to specify how they controlled for age and education of their respondents;
characteristics that might have an impact on job satisfaction. Saleh and Lalljee’s (1969) comparison of clerks and supervisors may have done so, but their results were only reported as organisational level differences. The samples are from male and female college students approximating a condition of equal education, organisational level, and age, and found that gender did not influence the outcome. It is, therefore, difficult to tell if the differences they found between clerks and supervisors were due to the organisational level, educational level, age, or perhaps other yet-to-be analysed variables. Armstrong’s samples of engineers and assemblers valued intrinsic motivation factors equally but had distinctly different levels of age and education.

To summarise, previous researchers have generalized their views that different levels of job responsibility have the same impact as different job position levels, towards employees’ job outcomes (Armstrong, 1971; Centers & Bugental, 1966; Morse & Weiss, 1955). However, the findings are out of date with contemporary views, and current research on the topic is elusive. The latest research is from Noe et al. (2014) who suggest that different job position levels indicate different levels of responsibility.

2.11 Conclusion to the Literature Review

Firstly, as a whole, this chapter has revealed that recruitment, job satisfaction, job motivation, job characteristics, and job information are correlated. The stronger the correlation, the greater the outcome (productivity) is achieved. Figure 1 illustrates the relationships found in the literature. These constructs have been derived from information obtained from employees involved as research subjects from across industries and job categories.
Figure 1: Connections between recruitment, job satisfaction, job motivation, job characteristics and job information, based on past findings.

Secondly, job characteristics theory and Herzberg’s theory are related. Both ideas contribute to understanding how the design of a job can enhance both productivity and the quality of an employee’s work life. Better job characteristics indicate that the position is enriched, thus improving the employee’s motivation. Herzberg theory focuses on job motivation, and it comprises how the job is enriched and how the job can maintain the employee’s satisfaction. Hence, both theories are related and have the same mission to improve employee satisfaction. (Nahrgang et al., 2011; Kiffin-Petersen & Cordery, 2003; Hackman & Oldham, 1976).
Thirdly, a variety of job categories and job responsibility levels have been used to explore the relationships between job motivation and specific job-related information. The literature reveals that there are significant relationships between different job categories, levels of job responsibility, motivation aspects, and the different specific job-related information that is sought. These findings suggest that the factors such as job dissatisfaction, the motivation to search, and job information, contribute to the development of relationships between different job categories, different levels of job responsibility, different motivation aspects, and different specific job-related information.

The findings from the literature review provide this researcher with an opportunity to investigate the research gap apparently (regarding job supervision responsibility that is employees background and the variance in job search motivation drivers and as well how this driver affects the information seeking behaviour) and on an action basis. The literature review has been used to develop the research framework and the potential hypotheses for the research to test.
Chapter 3
Development of Conceptual Framework

3.0 Introduction
This chapter synthesises the prior research in motivation and job information into a conceptual model of job seeking information behaviour in recruiting from the employee’s perspective. This chapter begins with a review of the process of recruiting both from the employers and employee’s perspective and the major decisions for both parties. The focus shifts to an in depth look at the employee’s perspective outlining the specific conditions, drivers, decisions, information requirements, and consequences throughout the recruiting process. The development continues with the adaptation of the most appropriate motivation and job information theories to the context of recruiting, and ultimately in a conceptual model of Job Seeking Information.

3.1 Process model of recruiting

Previous former scholar highlighted that the final product for recruitment is a pool of potential applicants that meet quality and quantity guidelines. In line with this the final product recruitment description, the thorough process is essential to reach to the targeted group of potential employees. The process model of recruiting can be viewed from two perspectives: employer and employee. The primary function in recruitment from the business perspective is to attract potential employees, and from employees, perspective is to make sure the job characteristics offered by the company able to
meet the prospective employees’ unmet expectation. Below explains the process from each perspective (Barber, 1998; Rynes & Barber, 1990).

3.1.1 Process model of recruiting from the employer perspective.

From the viewpoint of employer, the recruiting process model is concerned with the strategy of recruiting planning (Rynes & Barber, 1990; Wiley, 1992; Barber, 1998). This processes model of recruiting is aligned with the final recruiting outcome that is to retain in number of quality employees. ‘Creative’ and ‘up-to-date’ are the two elements that need to be considered when developing an organisation’s recruiting strategy, as these contingencies change over time (Wiley, 1992). With the assistance of process model, the recruiting strategy can be developed.

The process model of recruiting consists of three stages including: to identify the contingencies; develop the attraction strategies and; predict the attraction outcomes (Rynes & Barber, 1990). These processes are outlined to target the behavioural pattern for employees to achieve their needs and requirement. The figure illustrates the process of recruitment.
Figure 2: Model of the attraction process from organization perspective. Sources: Rynes and Barber, (1990) pp 2
In Figure 2, the process begins with contingencies considerations. It is important to recognize the potential initial reasons for developing an attraction strategy. An attraction strategy is important in recruiting because it assists the organisation to generate a pool of the right candidates. The organisation needs to know the current contingencies or conditions in the market, such as labor market conditions, vacancy characteristics, organizational characteristics, the phase of attraction process and legal considerations (Rynes & Barber, 1990). Job analysis may also assist the process of recruitment. After a thorough job analysis, the organisation should have a reasonable prediction of the number of candidates to be hired, the job description and job specification for potential employees. In essence, the job analysis provides much of the information about the job, tasks and level; all useful information when developing attraction strategies.

In next stage, attraction strategy is developed with considering three elements: practices in recruiting, inducement and applicant pool. In recruitment practices, four dimensions are identified: organisational representatives, messages, sources and timing. A first dimension that may affect the recruitment practice is organisational representatives. Example of organisational representatives include employees’ personality, knowledge and credibility. All of these characteristics can attract and influence potential employees’ decisions towards the organisation. For instance, to impress potential employees, the organization needs to train their recruiters or select qualified recruiters (possess all right characteristics) to attract potential employees to be part of organisation (Rynes & Boudreau, 1986).
The second dimension is the recruitment message. The nature of message transmission to the potential employees must be in an attractive form. The message must be accurate and relevant in order to avoid the imperfect information. Imperfect information may contribute to imperfect judgements about the job and the organisation (Schwab, Rynes & Aldag, 1987).

The third dimension that may influence the attraction strategy are recruitment sources. The sources depending on the background of targeted employees (Galanaki, 2002; Zusman & Landis, 2002; Capelli, 2001) and preference toward recruiting (Birchfield, 2002; Cappelli, 2001). Potential employees rely on recruiting sources to provide relevance and accuracy of information, a potential benefit for applicants (Parry & Tyson, 2008; Rynes & Barber, 1990). The final dimension in recruitment practice is timing. The timing should be a reasonable time, or it may discourage potential employees from joining an organisation (Rynes et al., 1980).

Practices in recruiting can influence the generation of quality and size of the potential employee pool. The practices have a positive influence if they convey accurate messages, the right sources are used, and practical timing is achieved during recruiting process. Quantity refers to the number of job applications, and quality relates to qualification and skills of the potential employees have. In Rynes and Barber (1990) process model, for application pool can be attracted using either traditional or non-traditional methods. In the traditional way, the applicants wait until the organisation advertises a job opening whereas the non-traditional maintains an ongoing open application process, where the applicant submit their application before
specific job has been advertised. Whether pecuniary or non-pecuniary, both can be used as an attraction strategy as well as in potential employees’ pool generation.

The attraction strategies work in concert with other human resource practices. Either attraction strategies affect the other human resource practices, or the reciprocal happens. For example, when a new compensation strategy is employed, the selection department also needs to revise its decision in targeting new applicants (Osterman, 1987).

Finally, the result is the attraction outcome, which is aligned with attraction objective to fill the vacancy (Maurer & Howe, 1989). The success of the outcome, stems from pre-employment success and post-employment success. Pre-employment success is achieved when a suitable number and quality of applications have been received in a time and cost effective manner (Rynes & Barber, 1990).

Post-employment success is measured by a suitable quantity and quality of job applicants accepting positions. In essence, both pre and post-employment success is necessary for overall success. For example, even if suitable potential employees are attracted, some may not accept the job they have been offered.

Therefore, this recruitment process model seems to combine the content of recruitment and the contingencies that potentially complicate recruitment. To guard against the possible problems from these contingencies, flexible and novel initiatives need to be employed. In addition, the consistent flow of process is important. If all of
the content, contingencies, and process issues are addressed, the likelihood of a successful recruiting outcome is improved.

All these steps, including the analysis of contingencies, development of attraction strategies, and the management of the processes, do not provide a complete theoretical framework because the perspective is confined to the employer. A company may address contingencies from the findings that gained from job analysis. It may also be useful for organisation to consider the desired environment and develop strategies to inform applicants about its job enrichment, and ultimately, the organisation may provide relevant information, in a form that makes the information attractive. However, the attractiveness of the information is determined by the applicants and this is governed by their job search behaviour. The next section discusses the recruitment process from this alternative view, the employee’s perspective.

3.1.2 Process model of recruiting from employee perspective

The model process of recruiting from employee perspective focusses on job information seeking behaviour. The primary objective for employees is to ensure that all their unmet expectation can be fulfilled. Thus, they are motivated to search for a new job and to have job satisfaction. The process model involves psychological behaviour and the cognitive reaction of employees towards their prior identified problems. Below is the process model of recruiting from the employees’ perspective. This model process derives from previous sections in literature review; the broader area is narrowed only to cater the insight from the employees’ perspective.
Figure 3: A process model of recruiting from employee perspective
Figure 3 views the recruiting process from employees’ point of view and is a result of the insight gained from previous literature in the broad area of recruitment, motivation and job search. The process model has four stages to be considered: 1) prior conditions, 2) self-regulation, 3) specification in Information Job Search and 4) Job application.

The first step in the process called prior conditions. This includes the conditions of employees in terms of background and work motivation. Employee histories are varied, ranging from different education background to the different level of job supervision responsibility. These different contexts produce various ways of thinking, past experience, and feelings. For example, an employee with more experience on the job, expects recognition when completing a large and complex task. If it does not eventuate, and the employee receives no recognition or acknowledgment, dissatisfied might occur. In relation with this, every employee has some unique characteristics that influence their satisfaction. Considering these characteristics is seen as a prior condition to ultimate success in the process.

Motivation factors have also been assessed to identify employees’ past conditions. In general, motivation is related to forces that drive employees to betterment. Every employee has their needs, wants and desires to be fulfilled. These needs, wants or desires can be either intrinsic or extrinsic. Herzberg (1959) labelled the job content as an intrinsic and the job context as an extrinsic. He argued that job content results in the type of productivity improvement often sought by companies. Furthermore, in more recent studies researchers have tended to agree; job content appears to be more fundamental to an increase in work motivation. Such job content characteristics
include responsibility, achievement, recognition and advancement (Parson & Broadbridge, 2006; Furnham, Forde & Ferrari, 1999; Wright, 1989). Herzberg also argued that job context has implications for the reduction of dissatisfaction feelings among employees.

From recruiting perspective, it is important to investigate employees’ prior motivations before they commit to information job search. These prior motivations of employees reflect their previous condition. Failure to fulfil either the job content or context could lead them to find more relevant job information. In this stage of the process, the focus is on why employees search for employment information. The area is broad at this stage because the employees have high levels of uncertainty and anxiety. All of these; failure of motivation, types of job information sought to describe the initial problems of recruiting and can be used as a mechanism of self-assessment in self-regulation purposes.

The second stage of the process is self-regulation. It accepts that the employees control the timing, or when they begin and to end the process. The employees assess their job search objective, considering the prior conditions they have. This assessment is necessary for employees to make a right decision either to proceed or not proceed with the job search.

The conceptual job information seeking behaviour model has two simple actions outcome: either to remain in the same job or to look for new employment. The decision is made based on the employees’ prior conditions, whether their objectives have been met or not and potentially the dissatisfaction they have experienced. All of
these reflect the broad idea of employees’ motivation state. It is common that if the employees are not motivated, they seek for a new job opportunity. Such an action is directly connected to the recruitment process. The literature reveals that the success of recruitment efforts depend upon how well a firm can attract a range of quality job applicants (Costello, 2006; Jovanovic, 2004; Breaugh, 1992; Rynes, 1991). The goodness-of-fit is the indication of employees’ psychological needs and value congruence are met. The ability to attract a sufficiency of potential employees is a sign of a good fit between applicant and organisation (Mohsin et. al., 2013; Carless, 2005; Cable & Judge, 1996; Chatman, 1991; Dawis & Lofquist, 1984).

The goodness-of-fit between a current employee's needs and abilities with the demands and attributes of their job in an organisation can be seen as an indicator of job satisfaction (Chen, Sparrow & Cooper, 2016; Warr, & Inceoglu, 2012). Goodness-of-fit would, therefore, constitute a potential predictor of job satisfaction and thus the likelihood of changing jobs. If there is a good alignment between expectations of the job and performance, then the employee will stay. If the alignment is not right, the employee is maybe more likely to seek an alternative position. For the organisation, a clear and accurate view of goodness-of-fit would enable the organisation to monitor those factors that are most liable to influence employees' job performance and satisfaction and thus gauge the potential for employee churn. Also, awareness of this relationship could then help ensure that employees achieve their targeted goals and allow the organisation to continue providing motivation for those who work for them (Warr & Inceoglu, 2012).
From the discussion above, employees go through complex evaluations before deciding either to remain with the organisation or to start searching another job. This process helps the employees to confirm their needs, as their level of uncertainty and anxiety are decreased. This lower level of anxiety is produced because the employees start to narrow the alternatives that they have constructed or reviewed in stage one (the prior conditions). If the employees decided to proceed with finding a new job, then they move to the third stage. Otherwise, they remain and give their service to the organisation.

The third process is the specification in job information search. The needs identified in stage two help the employees to proceed with the type of job information that they are searching for in the job search process. The two types of job information that are identified in previous literature such as job content information and job context information. Job content information refers to all information about the job itself. Meanwhile, job context information is about all information surrounding the job.

In this process, it involves the selection of job information, then evaluates it to determine whether it is relevant and/or accurate. The answers to these questions direct the employees whether to select or not select this type of information. The uncertainty feeling gradually decreases as they move towards a point of certainty. This particular point occurs when employees are satisfied with the accuracy and relevance of job information sought.

Breaugh and Billings (1988) define that accuracy of job information is about the correctness of information when compared with the reality in the job. When the job
information is accurate, it indicates that the information might be relevant to that 
particular potential employee. This accuracy leads to a specificity in job information; 
the detail of information becomes sufficient for employees to make a decision to 
apply for that job.

The job application is the final stage in job information search process. When the job 
application is made, it indicates that the employees are satisfied with what they have 
found in the process. The employees anticipate that the new employment situation 
will meet their unmet expectations.

In Figure 3, after job application process, there is another box with a dotted line. This 
dotted-line box is a process for post job application that is not included in the job 
information search process, but it was included because it is the end of the job 
recruitment process. The box represents the process before a job offer is accepted. 
The applicants are likely to have gone through an interview stage and may have 
received a job offer. It is expected that an individual may obtain extra information, 
after they apply, about the job. Thus, before job acceptance, a person might search for 
job information again. This process is likely in the event they want to verify the 
information they gained through the interview and compare with the information they 
have obtained from other sources (e.g. internal employee word-of-mouth information) 
and will re-assess the information thoroughly before job acceptance.

Therefore, after examining the two process models of recruiting, the viewpoint of the 
employee was selected to be used as the foundation in the development of the 
conceptual framework. The activities outlined in the process model are emphasised
on job search behaviour, and thus it relevant to the purpose of this thesis. To conduct
the process model, the understanding of the content activities is necessary. Next is a
further discussion of the content within the process model of recruiting from the
employees’ perspective.

3.1.2.1 The content theory of recruiting employee perspective.
In the previous literature review, the purpose of content theory is to give full detail in
understanding the reasons for behaviour (Maslow, 1954). The content of recruiting is
cconcerned with the reasons for why organisation is recruiting. The organisation wants
the content to be attractive to potential employees, so they will apply for a job. The
employee wants to find information in the offer from the organisation. To match their
needs, wants and desires. Both parties share the objective of filling the open position.
Also, from employees’ perspective, it is important to understanding the reasons for
why people are searching for job and how job searching can clarify the problem of
unmet expectation among the employees. The specific content includes working
conditions, drivers, decisions, information requirements, and consequences
throughout the recruiting process. Each plays an essential role in the process.

For example, the specific conditions of job environment may influence employees’
motivation to work. Otherwise, it may encourage employees to explore leaving their
organisation to search for other employment. Unpleasant work conditions generate
job dissatisfaction among the employees (Nujoo, 2012; Herzberg, 1956). Hence it is
essential to understand which conditions of the working environment do not meet the
employees’ expectation. This understanding is important because dissatisfaction
directs employees to search for new, and more relevant work environment.
In addition, the job itself also can be a reason why employees dissatisfied, and intent on a new a job search (Herzberg, 1966). Some scholar adds that the level of autonomy in a job make a difference in the level of satisfaction in a job (Kahya, 2007; Oldham & Hackman, 1976). To understand why conditions of the job itself are related to job search may provide a general description of an employee’s dissatisfied condition.

Another reason that needs to consider is why employees choose certain information in deciding type of career or type of organisation. Some employees find job information due to switching jobs or just obtaining more information about the job (Dinet et al., 2012). In other words, job information van be a tool to ensure a good match between employee and employer (Jovanic. 1979).

Therefore, content is linked to the reasons employees search for other jobs. Recruiting, motivation and job information play a foundational role in the information seeking behaviour model. The discussion below will explain the adaptation of the most appropriate motivation and job information theories to the context of recruiting.
3.2 The Herzberg motivation theory; An adaptation theory in the conceptual framework development.

The focal point for the process model in recruiting is to see how the behaviour of an employee is influenced and driven to start a job search or stop a job search (Vroom, 1964). Examining the motivation process contributes to the process model of recruiting. However, a thorough understanding of the content associated with this model is necessary. Thus, Herzberg motivation theory is seemed applicable to outline the present conceptual framework.

Herzberg (1966) outlines his motivation theory into two factors: motivators and hygiene. Motivators make up the reasons employees do not feel satisfied with the job. He measured the not satisfied towards the job regarding responsibility, recognition, advancement, achievement, promotion and the nature of the job itself. Not satisfied with the job meaning employees job criteria was not fulfilled in that particular organization. Job search may happen for this particular reason.

Hygiene factors consists of job environment elements, including salary, interpersonal relationship, supervision, company policy, job security and the condition of the workplace. The absence of hygiene factors may make employees feel little satisfaction in the organisation. Whether a motivator or hygiene factor, both are drivers for employees to transform from dissatisfied to satisfied. The efficacy of these drivers depends on the level of necessity, and it differ across employees’ background.
The two points above, employees background and motivation drivers are associated with and influence the job search process. Several assumptions on motivation drivers related to information seeking behaviour research are generated as below:

1) Different job experience may prefer different motivations as a driver in job search

2) Some job seekers may prefer monetary drivers in job search

3) Some job seekers may prefer non-monetary drivers in job search

4) Some job seekers emphasize on job enrichment in finding new job placement.

In sum, Herzberg’s theory of motivation will be used in the information seeking behaviour model. The drivers in Herzberg theory reflect the motivation conditions in the workplace. The process outcomes range from energizing work to quitting, and the range is illustrated by Herzberg’s theory. Also, to search and to apply for a new job, information is also needed in this research. Thus, concepts from the theory of job Information are used in this conceptual framework.

3.3 The adaptation of Job Information theory in the conceptual framework

The starting point in job information theory is to provide appropriate and timely information for job seekers; the expectation is that such information enables the job seekers to find a specific job they seek. Ellis (1996) divided job information into two divisions: job content and job context. Both of these two-job type of information were used in this conceptual framework.
Ellis (1996) describes job context as any information related to the environment of a job while Job Content related to the job itself. These two types of information are related to the motivation drivers discussed above. The condition and type of information depends on an individual employee’s needs and wants. To assume all, have similar needs and preference regarding job information is problematic. For example, some job seekers prefer job context information (Nujoo et al., 2012) and others prefer job content information in searching job information (Armsrtong, 1971).

Therefore, employees’ background plays a role as well as job motivation and job information in the information seeking model. Different background and different needs and wants, thus lead to different preference of job information specifically during a job search. The complete framework of the current research is outlined and explained in the next section.

3.4 Conceptual framework

The conceptual framework is outlined, and it will be illustrated to show the flow of associations between employees’ background, job search motivations and job information in information seeking behaviour framework. Figure 4 illustrates the conceptual framework designed for this research, including the roles of job category, the motivation for job search, and the differing categories of information one might seek in a job search process. It proposes that a set of relationships are likely to exist between the level of job responsibility, job search motivation factors, and job-specific related information.
Figure 4: A conceptual framework for Information-Seeking Behaviour in recruiting
The conceptual framework addresses the issue of how the background of employees (regarding job category) play a role in the relationship between motivation drivers and type of information sought. Job category is added to the conceptual framework because job category might also have an impact on information seeking behaviour. In general, employees in positions of higher authority are also likely to have higher levels of job supervision responsibility.

The drivers to be assessed include salary, current working conditions, and the nature of the job itself. This latter concept, the Job Itself, reflects those job characteristics that can motivate the employee from within. An example of internal motivation would be when the employee experiences joy when doing the tasks required by the job. The degree of enjoyment is thus one of the job characteristics which has an impact on motivation, retrieved from the job itself. In contrast, salary and current working conditions are factors that surround the job itself but are external to it. Thus, the motivation for the employee can be intrinsic or extrinsic.

Finally, specific job-related information will be examined regarding information content sought by the employee when looking for a new position. This sort of information can also be divided into job content-related and job context-related categories. Content information will be assessed regarding recognition, responsibility, achievement and advancement. The context information is divided into two divisions: salary and non-salary. The components for non-salary context are job security, supervision demands, interpersonal relationships, company policies and working conditions.
In summary, all of the above drivers for job search motivation and the components of job information will be tested in the research hypotheses analysis. The findings from the analysis are important for research because this is the platform to see whether the research objectives will be supported or not.

3.5 Conceptual framework and hypotheses development

Following discussions on the conceptual framework, there are three main ideas that related to each other (see figure 5) that initially derived from a discussion on the research problem area. The primary purpose of this research is to study information-seeking behaviour. Thus, job search is the main direction of exploration and job search is viewed as a behaviour to fill the opened job and as well as the platform for employees to renew their job satisfaction.
Figure 5: A conceptual framework for Information-Seeking Behaviour in recruiting with the hypotheses
Figure 5 shows the constructs such as job search motivation and job information are needed in developing the research. The research motivation suggests that human needs vary and they differ among employees (Nujoo et al., 2012, Ellis, 1996; Kanfer & Fetter, 1980; Armstrong, 1971). This finding suggests that differing background of employee also plays a role in explaining job information search behaviour which raises some interesting research questions. Is the job search motivation the same across employees with different backgrounds? Do the drivers of job search motivation relate to selecting of job information in job search process? Is the level of job search motivation related to job information selection? These questions and supporting concepts from the literature form the basis for a number of proposed relationships between the constructs. The best method is to present these relationships as formal statement or hypothesis.

For hypothesis 1, 2 and 3 are derived from the assumption that the background employees lead to different job search motivation drivers. The drivers for job search motivation are salary, current working conditions and the job itself. For example, someone in a high-level position may be motivated by salary whereas someone in a low position might be motivated by job search process. Job information also plays an important role in this conceptual framework. The components of job information are job content and context related information. Hypothesis, 4, 5, 6 and 7 are based on the assumption that the level of job supervision responsibility leads to the seeking and selection of different job information. These assumptions suggest that job search motivation and job information are viewed differently by the different group of employees. The last assumption questions if there is a correlation between job search motivation and job information.
3.5.1 The relationships between the levels of Job Supervision Responsibility and Salary

Hypothesis 1 is concerned with the relationships between the levels of responsibility an employee feels they have in their current job, and their salary. One can reason that those who have greater responsibility in an organisation are likely to command a higher salary than those with lesser degrees of responsibility. Those who feel they are deserving of higher compensation for their contribution to the organisation are likely to be more highly motivated by salary concerns. For example, Geoffrey et al., (2010) reveal that great job-level candidates are related to searching for information on high salaries in the job search process. Also, Ellis (1996b) and Armstrong (1971) have suggested that job seekers who hold higher levels of responsibility tend to consider salary as a stronger motivator in their job search process. This expectation is expressed as the first hypothesis:

H1: The higher the level of responsibility of the job-seeker is in his or her current position, the stronger the salary will be a motivator for seeking a new job.

3.5.2 The relationships between the levels of Job Supervision Responsibility and Current Working Conditions

Hypothesis 2 was developed to measure the relationships between on employees’ levels of responsibility in their current job and their attitudes towards their current working conditions. Ellis (1996) and Armstrong (1971) note that job seekers who hold lower levels of responsibility are more inclined to consider better current working conditions as the primary motivator in their job search process. The reason is
that employees with lower level responsibility have less complex job responsibility and dealing with always technical and physical efforts in doing a job. In contrast, other researchers contend that employees who hold higher position, often well-educated and making managerial decision also prefer current working conditions in order to motivate themselves (Tan & Waheed, 2011; Islam & Zaki, 2008; Rowley, 1996). Research in 1980s, also noted that professionals in accounting prefer the pleasant working conditions in order to make them motivated to work (Kaufman & Fetters, 1980). The recent findings that employees in higher level position are more attracted to current working conditions to motivate their work, thus the following hypothesis describes the expectation:

H2: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the stronger the current working conditions will be a motivator for seeking a new job.

3.5.3 The relationships between the levels of Job Supervision Responsibility and Job Itself

Hypothesis 3 refers to the relationship between on employees’ current job responsibility and the job itself and expects that employees who hold higher job responsibilities are more concerned with the job itself than those who hold lesser job responsibilities. Sims, Szilagyi, and Keller (1976) and Kessuwan and Muenjohn (2010) found a positive and significant relationship between different levels of responsibility and the ‘job itself.’ The higher the level of responsibility of the job seekers, then the greater role the characteristics of the ‘job itself’ serve in the motivation for their job search. This research suggests that those who are dealing
with conceptual skills are greatly motivated by the 'job itself' and the following hypothesis describes this expectation:

H3: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the greater “the job itself” will be a motivator for seeking a new job.

3.5.4 The relationship between the different levels of Job Supervision Responsibility and the Job Content Information.

Hypothesis 4 refers to the level of responsibility of the job-seeker in his or her current position towards Job-Content information searching. It is crucial to equip job-seekers with complete and realistic information about a different job that might interest them (Wanous, 1992). In Ellis (1996) job content measures recognition, responsibility, achievement, advancement and the work itself. Armstrong (1971) found that the higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker, then the more job-content related information was sought. Hence, hypothesis 4 was developed as below:

H4: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the more emphasis he or she places on job content information.
3.5.5 The relationship between the different levels of Job Supervision Responsibility and the Job Context Information.

Job-context information can be defined as “any information that is not related to the content of the job but to issues such as salary, social conditions, and details about the organisation” (Ellis, 1996, p.1512). Armstrong (1971) suggested that the lower the level of responsibility of the job seeker, the more the Job-Context related information is sought. In recent findings, Manjunath and Urs (2014) reveal that lower level management prefers job-context related information when looking for a new job, whereas Jansen and Samuel (2014) argue that senior level management also looks for job-context related information. Findings from Kaufman (1980), Choo et al. (2012) and Ogbo et al. (2012) confirm that job seekers with higher levels of responsibility also emphasise job context and salary information in their searches. Hence Hypothesis 5 is developed in below:

H5: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the more emphasis he or she places on information indicating job context salary and non-salary information.

3.5.6 The relationship between the different levels of Job Supervision Responsibility and the Salary Job Context Information.

In job-context related information, Salary is money, income paid by the employer on a continuing basis for services over a contracted period (Martocchio 2002; Mijlkovic 2002; Leung et al., 1996). Salary was found to inspire or to attract employees searching for a new job (Yamoah, 2014). Islam and Zaki (2008), revealed that salary is the main motivation factor for employees for employees in high position. In this
thesis, job context information is divided into two division. One of it is salary. As discussed in Hypothesis 5, those with high levels of responsibility as well as those with lesser levels, are concerned with salary. However, the degree to which salary concerns affect the job search and the decision to change employers is less clear. Thus, the following hypothesis is developed:

H6: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the more emphasis he or she places on information indicating salary.

3.5.7 The relationship between the different levels of Job Supervision Responsibility and the Non-Salary Job Context Information.

In this section, non-salary job-context information is the focus. In job context information, non-salary refers other than salary variables such as peer relationships, supervision, company policies and working conditions are also part of job context. Job security reflects the individuals’ job tenure and company stability (Senol 2011; Dunnett et al., 1967) where there is an expectation of regular employment for an extended period. Supervision refers to overseeing the work of other people who are in a lower position in the organisation's hierarchy of authority (Dersal 1962; Herzberg et al., 1959). Interpersonal relationships refer to the character of interaction between one and another individual that is not focussed on organisational activities (Hint, 1968). Company policies are concerned with the procedures that define and structure the activities within an organisation (Hinton, 1968). Finally, working conditions focusses on the quality of the physical surroundings within which the job activities occur, and includes all facilities available for doing work (Dunnett et al., 1967; Hinton, 1968). Armstrong (1971) and Manjunath and Urs (2014) both have
suggested that employees who hold a lower job responsibility position are preferred job-context related information. Nevertheless, employees in higher level responsibility position also prefer job-context related information (Jansen & Samuel, 2014; Choo et al., 2012; Ogbo et al., 2012; Kaufman, 1980). However, the level of concern towards non-salary job context information is not clear. Thus, Hypothesis 7 is developed as in below:

H7: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the more emphasis he or she places on non-salary information.

3.5.8 The relationship between Job Search Motivation drivers and Specific Job-Related Information

After examining the level of job supervision responsibility towards motivation drivers and specific job-related information, Research Objective 3 was developed to determine the relationship between job search motivation drivers and specific job-related information. Herzberg (1966; 1956) states that motivation drivers can contribute to the prediction of information seeking behaviour. McLean, Smits, and Tanner (1996) suggest that the more job seekers consider salary as their primary motivator, the more likely they are to emphasize salary information in their job search. Thus, the following hypothesis was developed:

H8: There is a positive relationship between Salary as a motivator for the job seeker and the importance of Salary Job Context Information in the job search.
Lawler (1974) and Sullivan and To (2014) point out in their study that job seekers who treat current working conditions as their primary motivation for job-searching, place more emphasis on job security, supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policies and working conditions in their information search. Herzberg (1956) also emphasised that employees evaluate their current working conditions from inadequate to adequate and he suggests that those employees are likely to seek more information on working conditions and emphasise this in their searches to improve their working conditions. Thus, the following hypothesis was developed:

H9: There is a positive relationship between current working conditions as motivational drivers and the importance of non-salary job context information.

Kim and Cha (2000) reported that job seekers who set the job itself as their strongest motivating factor tend to place more emphasis on job-content information (recognition, responsibility, achievement, and advancement) due to the chance that these factors may enhance their future career potential. Ellis (1996b) found a positive relationship between the job itself characteristics as a motivator and job content information. The more employees think about their job, the more this researcher anticipates that job content information is their primary concern. This assumption is described in the hypothesis below:

H10: There is a positive relationship between the job itself as motivation drivers and job content information.
The above hypotheses are regarding the job search process for the different levels of job responsibility flow from the literature review. The review shows that the job-search process requires variety. Perhaps the process may help the organisation to recruit quality employees in future. However, this exciting area of study has received relatively little attention in previous research. Indeed, the level of job responsibility and job supervision responsibility are different ideas. However, there is little if any research focusing on the differences between level the of job responsibility and job supervision responsibility, nor on their relevance to job search motivation and job-specific related information in the job search process. Thus, this current study has been designed to examine differences in the importance of job categories and job supervision responsibility in seeking new employment opportunities.

3.6 Additional research

The research framework comprises three primary constructs: job categories, job search motivation factors, and job-specific related information. An additional question is examined to investigate the relationship between job categories on job search motivation. Employees with high responsibility (e.g. engineers, managerial) will presumably have different information needs than those in positions of lower responsibility (e.g. technicians and clerical). This condition is reflected in the following two exploratory research questions:

ERQ1: Are there relationships between level of (1) job responsibility and (2) job supervision responsibility, regarding factors affecting search motivation in the job search process?
ERQ2: Are there relationships between the level of (1) job responsibility and (2) job supervision responsibility, and the selection of specific information types in the job search process?

These exploratory research questions are tested to explore either there is a gap between job responsibility and job supervision responsibility towards search motivation and type of information sought in job search process. The test is exploratory in nature and occurs prior to further analysis in this thesis.
Chapter 4
Research Method

4.0 Introduction
This study employs a descriptive research design using a cross-sectional sample questionnaire and aims to develop and test a conceptual ‘job search’ model, in which hypotheses are advanced and tested to confirm the relationships. A self-administered questionnaire was developed and the target population for this study was the employees of Tenaga Nasional Berhad. Tenaga Nasional Berhad is the largest electric company in Malaysia and also the largest power company in South East Asia. The questionnaire had a duration of two months and a random sampling technique was applied. The method of data collection was chosen to be a questionnaire format. This was influenced by the fact that most of the scales used to measure the constructs had used this methodology.

4.1 Questionnaire Instrument
A questionnaire was used for this study. Correct and appropriate questions were asked; the questionnaire has been and was asked in a suitable way so that the respondents could be clearly understood. This level of care with the questions is essential because any imperfections or limitations would result in data with flaws such as measurement errors and biases. The questionnaire (see Appendix A and B) consisted of four parts, part A: Introduction the purpose of the questionnaire, part B: Demographic (employees background), part C: Measuring Job Search Motivation drivers, and part D: Measuring Specific Related Job Information.
In part A, the letter of consent is attached. The respondent (employee) will be asked to read and sign the letter of consent. This was to obtain employee’s approval to answer the questionnaire. Part B, C, and D concerned the employee’s information pertaining the research of information seeking behaviour. In brief, part B consists of four questions to be asked of the employees, part C has 32 questions, and all are related to salary, current working conditions and the job itself, and part D has 33 questions relating to salary job context information, job content information and non-salary job context information.

4.1.1 Part B: Employees Backgrounds

As mentioned above, part B covers employees background in this questionnaire development. Most studies of employees backgrounds use “job title” and “job level” (Nujjoo & Meyer, 2012; Sharma & Bajpai, 2011; Morgeson & Humphrey, 2006; Boudreau et al., 2001; Robie et al., 1998; Cohen, 1992) as measurement scales for examining the relationships between the employees backgrounds and the constructs used in job search research. Job titles are used to categorise positions in the organisations. A job title is a brief description of the responsibilities of the position, the level of the job, and often both. For example, Armstrong (1971) used engineers and assemblers (high-low job-level groups) as his job titles in his research; Gibbs et al. (2010) used job occupations in their research.

Therefore, in this research, questions regarding employees’ backgrounds were asked in the demographic section of the questionnaire and included questions regarding job title. Questions relating to the level of job supervision responsibility also were
requested in the questionnaire. The level of job supervision responsibility was needed to determine the backgrounds and levels of employees’ supervision responsibilities.

4.1.2 Part C: Measuring Job Search Motivation Drivers

This section discusses the drivers for job search motivation. This discussion is essential for this research because the research needs to be built on what drivers are relevant in job search process. The literature mentions a variety of ways for using motivational factors in job search research. For example, firstly, Herzberg (1968) uses motivational and hygiene factors for measuring the impact of motivation towards satisfaction. Motivational factors refer to factors that are derived from inside of the job itself, while hygiene factors refer to factors that are outside of the job itself. Secondly, other researchers (Hayati & Caniago, 2012; Lundberg et al., 2009; Deci & Ryan, 1985; Kufman, 1980) have treated motivation factors concerning extrinsic factors (external) and intrinsic factors (internal). From the discussion above job search motivation factors are factors that are of concern to the internal and external conditions of the job itself. Thus, this research divides job search motivation factors into three sections: (1) salary; (2) current working conditions; and (3) the job itself. Below is the table of question listing used in the questionnaire (See Table 5).
Table 5: Listing of measurement for Job Search Motivation drivers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Salary</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. My salary was a good one</td>
<td>Tan &amp; Waheed, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. I felt satisfied with my salary</td>
<td>Dunnette et al., 1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. My pay was better than that for similar jobs in other firms.</td>
<td>Modified JDI by</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Current Working Conditions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships with co-workers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. My co-workers were friendly*</td>
<td>Tan &amp; Waheed, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. My co-workers were helpful.</td>
<td>Dunnette et al., 1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. My co-workers were personally interested in me.</td>
<td>*similar with modified JDI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. My co-workers were competent.*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I felt close to my co-workers</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships with supervisor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. My supervisor showed concern for me*</td>
<td>Dunnette et al., 1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. My supervisor was helpful in me getting work done</td>
<td>*similar with modified JDI</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. My supervisor created a good teamwork environment*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. I felt close to my supervisor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>5. I was satisfied with the competence of my supervisor in making decisions*</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Policy</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Company policies were well communicated</td>
<td>Dunnette et al., 1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Company personnel policies were well defined</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Personnel policies and practices in the company were good ones</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Physical Working Conditions</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. My physical surroundings were good</td>
<td>Tan &amp; Waheed, 2011</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. My working conditions were comfortable.</td>
<td>Dunnette et al., 1967</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. The company did a good job of providing steady employment.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job itself</strong></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
| **Responsibility** | Tan & Waheed, 2011  
Dunnette et al., 1967 |
| 1. I decided on my own how to go about doing my work |  |
| 2. I was allowed to use my personal initiative and judgement in carrying out the work |  |
| 3. I had considerable opportunity for independence and freedom |  |
| **Recognition** | Tan & Waheed, 2011  
Dunnette et al., 1967 |
| 1. I was satisfied with the praise that I got for doing a good job |  |
| 2. I received plenty of recognition to motivate me at work. |  |
| **Achievement** | Tan & Waheed, 2011  
Dunnette et al., 1967 |
| 1. I was satisfied with the non-financial rewards that I received |  |
| 2. I had the chance to direct others in their work. |  |
| 3. I was satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment I got |  |
| **Advancement** | Tan & Waheed, 2011  
Dunnette et al., 1967 |
| 1. I was satisfied with the opportunities for advancement. |  |
| 2. I was satisfied with the fairness internal promotion. |  |
| **Nature of job (Enjoyable, Interesting, Challenging)** | Tan & Waheed, 2011  
Dunnette et al., 1967 |
| 1. I enjoyed the work |  |
| 2. My job was very interesting. |  |
| 3. The actual duties of my job were challenging. |  |
Table 5 lists the detail of measurement used in the questionnaire. In the questionnaire developed for this research, salary is reviewed regarding good salary, better salary, and satisfied salary, and how salary can influence employees’ motivation in searching for alternative employment. Current working conditions refer to factors outside of the job itself such as supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policies, and working conditions. The questionnaire examines the perspectives of employees when identifying their job search motivation factors.

Finally, the job itself is also considered in this section of research analysis and is evaluated concerning responsibility, recognition, achievement, advancement, and the nature of the job. It is measured to understand the employees' perspectives towards behaviour involved while information seeking. The question regarding the degree of consensus has been asked to evaluate employees' views towards the behaviour of information seeking. The level of agreement is examined using the five-point Likert scale which ranges from strongly disagree to strongly agree.

In important note, within this job search motivation drivers (the idea of drivers adopted from Herzberg (1966) but were slightly altered in that they were asked as motivation to search for a new job. In its original form, it has been used more than 40 years in work motivation across various field and types of final job outcomes.
4.1.3 Measuring Specific Job-Related Information

Prior research specifies job-related information into two sections; job content information and job context information. Job content information relates to the job itself while job context information relates to the outside of the job itself. Essentially, there is a relationship between job motivation and specific job-related information. For this research, specific job-related information is examined regarding (1) salary job-context information; (2) job-content information; and (3) non-salary job context information.

Salary job-context information specifically deals with information about salary only. The job-content information refers to any information regarding the job itself, such as responsibility, recognition, achievement, advancement, and the nature of the job. Meanwhile, non-salary job context information deals with information that surrounds the job itself, such as supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policies and working conditions (Malik, 2011; Herzberg, 1956). Table 6 shows the listing of measurement for salary job context, job content, and non-salary job context information.
Table 6: Listing of measurement for Specific Job-related Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Reference</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Salary Job-Context Information</strong></td>
<td>Ellis, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. A good salary.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A salary better than similar jobs in other firms.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<p>| <strong>Job-Content Information</strong>                    |           |
| Responsibility                                  | Ellis, 1996 |
| - Freedom in the organization of my job        |           |
| - Opportunity to use personal initiative and judgement on the job. |           |
| - Opportunity to have greater responsibility on the job. |           |
| - Opportunity to have more power in decision making. |           |
| - Opportunity to use my own methods of doing the job. |           |
| Recognition                                    |           |
| 1. Praise.                                     |           |
| 2. Opportunities for recognition.              |           |
| Achievement                                    |           |
| 1. Chance to direct others in their work.      |           |
| 2. Feeling of accomplishment from the job.     |           |
| Advancement                                    | Ellis, 1996 |
| 1. Opportunities for internal promotion.       |           |
| 2. Opportunities for advancement.              |           |
| Nature of job                                  | Ellis, 1996 |
| 1. An enjoyable job.                           |           |
| 2. A challenging job.                          |           |
| 3. An interesting job.                         |           |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Non-Salary Job-context information</th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Relationships with co-workers</td>
<td>Ellis, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Friendly relationships among co-workers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Helpful co-workers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Similar personal interest with other co-workers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Competent co-workers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>- Close relationships with co-workers.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Relationships with supervisor</td>
<td>Ellis, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. A concerned supervisor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. A helpful supervisor</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. A Close relationship with supervisor.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4. A supervisor competent in decision making.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job security</td>
<td>Ellis, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Employment stability and security.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Policy</td>
<td>Ellis, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Well communicated company policies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Well defined company policies.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. Good personnel policies and practices.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Physical working conditions</td>
<td>Ellis, 1996</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1. Good physical surroundings.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. Comfortable working conditions.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 6 lists the measurements used in specific job-related information are listed. In this section, respondents (the employees) were asked in what way they consider the specific job-related information to be relevant to employees. First, classification questions were asked to determine whether or not employees search for this information. The five-point Likert scale with options ranging from unimportant to
very important was then employed to determine the level of importance the respondents believe the information is to employees.

Determining the most influential motivation factors and the most important specific job-related information was followed by the analysis of (1) the correlation between different backgrounds of employees and their job search motivation factors and their specific job-related information, and 2) the relationships between the job search motivation factors and the specific job-related information.

4.2 Translation of the Instrument from English to Malay

A modified back translation strategy was used to translate the questionnaire instrument from English to Malay. This strategy is used as it can provide an accurate translation of the questionnaire instrument. With considering the conceptual, semantic and normative similarities between the versions of the survey instrument (Huijer, et al., 2017; Gilson, et al., 1980; Chapman et al., 1978; Brislin et al., 1973).

A Malaysian doctoral student who had been in New Zealand for over three years, very fluent in English, and who has a recognized certificate for translating from Malay to English and from English to Malay is chosen to complete the translation of the questionnaire instrument from English into Malay. A back-translation from Malay to English was by an academician who is an expert in English technical language and who had many years of experience in translating from Malay to English. The original English version of the questionnaire instrument was then compared with the translated English version. After the comparison, several items were found to have inconsistencies in meaning. Alterations were made, and the translation process was
repeated until all the elements were considered to have an appropriate degree of conceptual and linguistic equivalence.

Two Malaysian postgraduate students were consulted as to the exact meaning of each item in the Malay version of the questionnaire instrument. The researcher had outlined the intent of each item, and the Malay postgraduate students were asked to comment as to whether each item achieved the objective of the questionnaire instrument and whether the item was likely to be understood correctly. This process occurred after the first translation and was repeated in respect of items amended in the second iteration of the translation process. After the result, some minor changes were made to the Malay version such as grammatical changes. These changes did not affect the meaning of the instrument. The Malay version of the instrument is included in this thesis in Appendix B.

4.3 Research Sampling and Data Collection

A sampling frame for this research was taken from a list of employees of Tenaga Nasional Berhad, the parent company of University Tenaga Nasional where the research was performed. The sampling frame was from one location of the large electricity provider organisation and has a wide range of job categories, job levels, and job supervision responsibilities. For survey purposes, the company gave permission to explore the work space for survey distribution purposes. They did not give the list name of employees due to company policy, but the management team promised their cooperation if the researcher facing difficulty. The premise of the company has eleven stories and approximately 1600 of employees (managerial and
technical department) but this number does not include the contract workers such as gardeners and janitors. The employees are from the same geographical area and urban area within Kuala Lumpur.

A team of three is formed to assist me in survey distribution. The researcher had set certain criteria for these research team members: the criteria are such as they needed to have some experience in data collection, be a resident in Kuala Lumpur and not be working within present data collection period. Prior to the data collection process, they were given a brief explanation of the questionnaire and research expectations and that theme was consistency across the team. This was important in order to ensure that all necessary data was collected. They were also provided with a schedule to collect the data.

A work intercept random sampling method was used in this survey. Every selected employee was approached personally and given a letter asking them to voluntarily participate in this study. Participation in the study was voluntary and the selected employees had the right to refuse to answer the questionnaire. The employees were restricted to those who have three years or less working experience in the organisation. This was to ensure that they still remember the wants and desires they held in the early part of the process of searching for a new job. If the employee agreed to participate in survey, the team member gave them a copy of questionnaire and requested that employee to send it back to via their supervisor. The questionnaire was translated into “Bahasa Melayu” to allow the respondents to answer the questionnaire in their own language. Also, ‘Bahasa Melayu” is the language used in the Tenaga Nasional Berhad organisation.
Since this premise has 11 stories, this group of four need to begin the questionnaire distribution in same time but directing different levels. The target was to attract 30 participants a day, so the questionnaire distribution could be completed within 20 days. The team member had 500 questionnaires, but due to refusals, employee schedule conflicts, and absenteeism meant that 396 employees completed the questionnaire.

4.4 Data Analysis

This study employed questionnaire method for the collection of data. The questionnaire used the five-point Likert scale and the categorical measurement method. This data set represents quantitative data, and therefore quantitative analysis is employed for this study. The analysis begins with a reliability test to ensure that all the variables used are reliable and valid. This reliability test is important before proceeding with the next data analysis, which is designed to answer the research hypotheses.

4.4.1 Scale Testing: Reliability Testing

Reliability is used to test the scale development of all items in the construct. Reliability is tested using a method developed by Cronbach (1951). Cronbach developed this procedure to measure the internal consistency. The scale is expressed as a number between 0 and 1. All the items are measured toward the same construct, and hence internal consistency indicated the interrelation between the items and they are connected to each other. Internal consistency must be determined before a test can be employed for research or examination purposes to ensure validity.
The acceptable values of alpha are reported differently, but they still refer to the same ranges which are between 0.70 to 0.95 (DeVellis, 2003; Bland & Altman, 1997; Nunnally, 1978). A small number of questions, the wrong interrelation between items, or different construct could contribute to the low value of alpha. For example, variables or constructs should be removed or revised if alpha is small due to weak correlation between items. Also, when the alpha is too high, it indicates that some items may be redundant. For example, the scale could include be same questions but slightly different sentence structure. The maximum alpha coefficient recommended by Streiner (2003) is 0.90.

4.4.2 Classification: Cross-tabulation

The data required classification before hypotheses testing was conducting. Cross-tabulation was used to classify the variance points between job supervision responsibility and occupation. This cross-tabulation was also used to answer the exploratory research questions. The researcher cross-tabulated two sets of discrete variables collected in independent samples to determine whether there are differences between those two sets of discrete variables. The results of the tabulation indicate that variable supervision responsibility would be used for further analysis.

4.4.3 Hypothesis testing

Hypothesis testing is a formal test used to decide whether to reject or to accept the assumption made. It indicates either the assumptions are correct or not. Thus, this thesis has ten hypotheses to be tested. The first seven hypotheses will be tested using
One-way ANOVA analysis and hypothesis 8,9 and 10 will be tested using Bivariate Correlation Analysis.

4.4.3.1 One-way ANOVA

The aims of one-way analysis of variance (ANOVA) is to test the variance between the means of three or more independent groups (Hanna, Kee & Robeton, 2017; Keselman et al., 1998). This research has four independent groups of job supervision responsibility and two research variables (job search motivation drivers and specific job-related information). A F test is used in this ANOVA. However, the F value does not direct the researcher where those differences. LSD (Least Significant Difference) is used to indicate the mean for each group individually. The means plot is illustrated to see the variation between the groups.

4.4.3.2 Bivariate Correlation Analysis

Bivariate correlation analysis is used in this study because it focuses on the relationship between two variables. In this research, the two focus variables are job search motivation factors and specific job-related information factors. Bivariate correlation analysis can analyse data objectively and systematically; thus, contributes to results that are less likely to be biased, more consistency and this basis can be used to explain the decisions in full and are useful (Cohen et al., 2013; Zimmerman et al., 2003).

In this analysis, the Pearson Correlation Coefficient (r) was used to explore the strength between two variables to assess how the quantitative variables are linearly related in a sample. The Pearson coefficient correlation is always denoted by r. The r
measures any linear relationship between two variables. The values of $r$ lie between -1 and +1; if $r$ is zero, it indicates no correlation between the two variables. However, if $0 < r < 1$ then it means that there is a positive linear relationship. The positive sign of $r$ indicates that an increase in the value of one variable may influence this current study’s expectation that the other value will increase. If $r$ is the negative sign, then the value of one variable will increase and would lead this current study to expect that the other variable will decrease.

In previous two assumptions were made for Pearson correlation coefficient, 1) has to ensure that the respondent used in a sample must independent and 2) that the variables are bivariate normally distributed (Whitlock & Schluter, 2009). However, Puth et al., (2014) argued that the first assumption is a common practice for many statistical testing and further discussion is needed. The second hypothesis, Binder (1959) and Pitman (1937) find that the normal distribution is not necessary and not significant. This normal distribution is either $r$ is greater or smaller; it always lies on the straight line or around the trend line. Thus, normality or not normality still valid the findings. In contrast, Puth et al., (2014) revealed that if normality is ignored, it may contribute to biased results.

4.5 Validation process in questionnaire development

The validation process was emphasised during the development phase of the questionnaire. Crano and Brewer (2002) note that a more secure means of assuring content validity is using expert panels. In this study, content validity of the measurement instrument was assessed by seeking expert opinions from industrial, academic and the company sampling. Therefore, this researcher takes the initiative to
ask people who are the expert in HR and referred to HR experts in the sample organisation, Tenaga Nasional Berhad. The communication between researcher and the experts continued until the point where all the fine tuning was completed. This was followed by a pilot study of 30 people. This group of people comprises of Malaysian postgraduate students because they have working experience back in their home country. Ultimately, changes were made according to their recommendations.

4.6 Conclusion

This chapter outlined several steps in its research methods. Beginning with the questionnaire development. In the questionnaire development, designing the scales, translation and back translation process and reproofing the survey (adjusting and correcting) until the finished questionnaire was produced.

Then, following best practice, sampling and data collecting was planned, including the place of sampling, target sample size, and method used in questionnaire distribution and data collection. Finally, data analysis was designed, including the validation of internal consistency to hypothesis testing. The resultant data collection and analysis was deemed appropriate to answer research objective accordingly.
Chapter 5
Results

5.0 Introduction

This chapter documents the results of the data analysis that was performed to test the hypotheses developed in Chapter 3. The data set gathered was analysed using the Statistical Package for Social Sciences (SPSS) Version 21. The response rate, the respondents’ profiles, and the cross-tabulation of employees’ backgrounds are presented in order to obtain insight into the sample and to facilitate the interpretation of the results. In this chapter the research findings are presented in order to answer the research objectives set out in Chapter 1.

5.1 Relevant Background Related to Respondents’ Profiles

The section pertaining to the items that may provide insight into the research findings. This section presents the response rate and the respondents’ profiles including the age, occupations, and job responsibility categories.

5.1.1 Response Returned

There are two waves of data collection. In the first wave, 400 questionnaires were distributed, but only 302 questionnaires were returned (75.5%). In Kricje and Morgan (1970), ranges 384 to 400 is a sufficient sample size. However, in the first wave, only 302 were collected. Thus, the second wave of data collection needed to be conducted again. 100 questionnaires were distributed, and to make sure no repeating respondents, thus the researcher began with the question “Have you answer this questionnaire before?”. If they had not, they were handed the questionnaire and
invited to participate. Of the second wave, 94 returned completed questionnaires resulting in a total of 500 employees being approached and 396 questionnaires completed and return (79.2 respondent rate). The group included employees within the managerial, engineering, clerical and technical teams. Hence this research is based on a sample of 396 employees of Tenaga Nasional Berhad.

5.1.2 Respondents’ Profiles

The sample included 242 (61%) male and 154 (39%) respondents. There were four occupation categories: managerial, engineering, clerical and technical. Since the core activity of the participating organisation (Tenaga Nasional Berhad) is the production and delivery of electric energy, the sample contained a large number of employees in technical occupations (engineers and technicians). Engineering and technical jobs are often performed by males which could explain the high percentage of male respondents. The findings show that the largest number of respondents were from the clerical (administrative) division (29.29%), followed by engineering (25%), managerial (24.24%) and technical (21.46%). Table 7 illustrates the division of job category by gender frequencies.

Table 7: A division of gender per occupation

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>Gender</th>
<th>Male</th>
<th>Female</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managerial</td>
<td></td>
<td>66</td>
<td>30</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td></td>
<td>74</td>
<td>25</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td></td>
<td>46</td>
<td>70</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technician</td>
<td></td>
<td>56</td>
<td>29</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td></td>
<td>242</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 7 shows Male were dominant in the job category of Managerial, Engineer and Technician, indicating that the professional jobs were dominated by male employees.
There were four levels of supervision throughout the four occupational groups including: no supervision (meaning that an employee with no supervision responsibility), guided (an employee with guiding responsibility only), supervise (an employee with supervision responsibility only) and supervise and plan (an employee with supervision and planning responsibilities). As illustrated in Table 8, 48% of the sample is expected to guide their subordinates, 21% have no supervision responsibility, 21% are supposed to supervise their subordinates, and 10.86% are scheduled to supervise and plan for their subordinates.

Table 8: Sample Characteristics

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Categories</th>
<th>Frequencies</th>
<th>%</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Gender</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Male</td>
<td>242</td>
<td>61.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Female</td>
<td>154</td>
<td>39.0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Occupation</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Managerial</td>
<td>96</td>
<td>24.24</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td>99</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>116</td>
<td>29.29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technical</td>
<td>85</td>
<td>21.46</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Level of Job Supervision Responsibility</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Supervision</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>20.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>47.72</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>20.71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>10.86</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>396</td>
<td>100</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 8 shows that many respondents for this thesis are predominated by males, holding a position in clerical and bearing guided levels of Job Supervision Responsibility.

5.2 Considerations Prior to Analysis

Several analyses were performed prior hypothesis testing. The first was related to job supervision responsibility and job category testing. The purpose was to explore the first exploratory research question and determine the relationship between job type, occupations, and job supervision responsibility). The second analysis tested the reliability to determine the internal consistency for each construct scale in the research.

5.2.1 Job Supervision Responsibility and Job Category Testing: Cross-tabulation

Table 9 shows the cross tabulation of Occupations by Job Supervision Responsibility. The cross-tabulation test was computed to obtain the breakdown in detail.

Table 9: Cross-tabulation for Job Supervision Responsibility and Job Category

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Occupation</th>
<th>No supervision</th>
<th>Guide</th>
<th>Supervise</th>
<th>Supervise and plan</th>
<th>Total</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Managerial</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>36</td>
<td>31</td>
<td>19</td>
<td>96</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Engineer</td>
<td>18</td>
<td>35</td>
<td>33</td>
<td>13</td>
<td>99</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Clerical</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>73</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>8</td>
<td>116</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Technician</td>
<td>27</td>
<td>45</td>
<td>10</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>189</td>
<td>82</td>
<td>43</td>
<td>396</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Table 9 shows that 116 (29%) employees held clerical positions and 99 (25%) held engineering positions. Under job supervision responsibility, the three most prominent groups were 189 (48%) that reported Guided responsibilities, 82 (21%) reporting No supervision, and 82 (21%) reporting Supervision responsibilities. In the literature, when job categories are matched with job supervision responsibilities, a typical clerical position is generally matched with low job supervision responsibility (no supervision or guided), whilst an engineering position is usually matched with high job supervision responsibilities (supervise and supervise and plan). To determine this relationship in the current research (Occupations or Job Supervision Responsibility to be used in this research), an exploratory to research question was examined.

5.2.1.1 Exploratory Research Question 1: Which method should the research use either occupation or job supervision responsibility scales?

This exploratory research question is essential for this research due to determine the relationship between Occupation and Job Supervision Responsibility. An exploration of a situation (between Occupations and Job Supervision Responsibility) may provide significant input to this research. Below is the table of Cross-tabulation to show the relationship between Occupation and job supervision responsibility scale in detail. See Table 10.
The table 10 above shows that approximately half of the Managerial (47.9 % ) and Engineer ( 53.6% ) occupation had low or no job supervision responsibility and less than one sixth of the Clerical (14%) and Technician (15.3%) had higher job supervision responsibility. These findings show that using the occupation as a surrogate measure for the level of job supervision could contain up to half of the managerial and engineers to be misclassified.
In the previous literature the occupations of Managerial and Engineer would have been synonymous with high job supervision responsibility, but the preliminary results from the current study suggests that if an employee holds a professional job, he or she may not be expected to have high job supervision responsibility. In the previous literature in job research area, researchers preferred to use job type in their research classifications. For example, Armstrong (1971) used two types of job: Engineer and Assembler, and others have used other surrogates like seniority in the company, accountants (Kaufman & Fetters, 1980); sales executive (Teng & Waheed, 2011) and technician (Nujoo et al., 2012).

The following conclusions can be drawn from these preliminary results: 1) not many studies have been conducted in the area employing job supervision responsibility scales and 2) the misclassification of job profession according to its supposed job supervision responsibility scales may not be unique. In light of this, in order to answer the exploratory research question, the current study should use responses to the job supervision responsibility instead of occupation for any subsequent hypotheses testing and analyses.

5.2.2 Reliability

Measuring reliability using Cronbach’s alpha has been extensively used by researchers (Peterson, 1994; Schmitt, 1996; Tavakol, & Dennick, 2011). Opinions differ, however, about the typical threshold alpha value. Table 11 shows the reliability analysis results for job search motivation factors and specific job-related information.
Table 11: Reliability Analysis

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Construct</th>
<th>Cronbach’s Alpha</th>
<th>Number of items</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Job Search Motivation Driver</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary</td>
<td>0.835</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Current Working Conditions</td>
<td>0.907</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job itself</td>
<td>0.915</td>
<td>13</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td><strong>Specific Job-Related Information</strong></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Salary Job-Context information</td>
<td>0.752</td>
<td>2</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job-Content information</td>
<td>0.787</td>
<td>15</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Salary Job Context information</td>
<td>0.896</td>
<td>16</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 11 shows the findings from reliability analysis. Cronbach’s alpha for all research constructs is above 0.70. According to Bland and Altman (1997) and Nunnally (1978) values of alpha ranging from 0.70 to 0.95 are acceptable values. Peterson (1994) suggests that the acceptable range for reliability is between 0.50 and 0.95, but it depends on the type of research. If it is a basic research the values need to be 0.70 and above. Kline (1999) also points that a value of $\alpha=0.70$ can be acceptable for psychological constructs. Therefore, these values indicate that all research constructs under job search motivation drivers and specific job-related information are reliable and acceptable to be used in the following research analysis.

For each of these scales, the Cronbach Alphas were examined for sensitivity to individual items. To identify for this sensitivity, each item was deleted to see whether the resultant Alpha was markedly improved. For the job search motivation drivers, no
deleted items resulted large improvements in the coefficient Alpha. The Cronbach alpha for Salary is at 0.835 and the highest value after removal is at 0.882. Current working conditions had Cronbach alpha at 0.907, and the maximum value with deleted items was 0.906, Job itself has 0.915 Cronbach alpha and when the items were deleted the highest coefficient value is at 0.915. These variances indicate that no changes to the scale were necessary to improve its reliability for subsequent analyses.

For specific-related job information, none of the constructs showed positive changes in coefficient values when items were deleted. Job-content highest value is deleted was 0.785 and without any deletion was 0.787. Similar results were for non-salary job context information (after removal, 0.895 and no deletion, 0.896) and salary job context information (0.752 for both events deleted or not). These results suggest that there were no reliability problems to be addressed prior to further analysis.

5.3 Assessment of Job Information Seeking Behaviour

The assessment analyses the importance of job search motivation drivers and specific job-related information towards job information seeking behaviour. Job search motivation drivers refer to the job itself, current working conditions, and salary. Meanwhile, specific job-related information consists of job content, non-salary job context, and salary job context. These three factors could be used in predicting the pattern of employees’ information seeking behaviour.
5.3.1. Measuring Job Search Motivation Drivers

This section discusses the analysis to achieve the research objective 1. It starts with the testing of Hypothesis 1, 2 and 3 then followed by a test of group differences. The aim is to see the variance within the job search motivation drivers between job supervision responsibility grouping.

5.3.1.1 Hypothesis 1: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the stronger salary is as a motivator for seeking a new job

The first hypothesis test in this thesis tested whether groups with different job supervision responsibility had different preferences towards salary. Table 12 illustrates the ANOVA table for salary and job supervision responsibilities.

Table 12: ANOVA Salary and Job Supervision Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>13.937</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.646</td>
<td>8.513</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>213.914</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.546</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>227.851</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 12 shows that group within job supervision responsibility perceived differently towards salary. The result indicates the F test is 8.513, p < 0.01, thus it is significant. Thus, Hypothesis 1 was supported. Next, the test of group differences was conducted. Table 13 presents the comparisons between the groups in job supervision responsibility in detail.
Table 13: Test of group differences: Salary and Job Supervision Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Supervision Responsibility</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One-way ANOVA test of mean differences</td>
<td>Salary F=8.513***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No supervision (NS)</td>
<td>3.6911</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided (G)</td>
<td>4.1146</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise (S)</td>
<td>4.0772</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plan (SP)</td>
<td>4.2946</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (all groups)</td>
<td>4.0387</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post Hoc LSD Test of Mean differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Difference</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans &gt; No Supervision</td>
<td>***0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise &gt; No Supervision</td>
<td>***0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided &gt; No Supervision</td>
<td>***0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans &gt; Guided</td>
<td>0.150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise &gt; Guided</td>
<td>0.702</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans &gt; Supervise</td>
<td>0.119</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p < 0.01, **p < 0.05, *p<0.1

Table 13 shows that the importance of salary is significantly different between the groups. For the individually group, it seems that No Supervision is an important difference with Supervise and Plan, Supervise and Guide. There is also a significant difference between Supervise and Plan, and Guide. These findings show that employees with No Supervision have different perspective on Salary. The means show that the differences are slightly small yet, still significant.

An inference is that employees who holding higher job supervision responsibility are more likely to place an emphasis on salary as a driver in the job search process. Figure 6 plots the means across the groups.
Figure 6 shows the difference between not responsible and 1) supervise and plan, 2) supervise and 3) guide. This finding supports Hypothesis 1 which highlights that the higher position the employee has, the more he or she is motivated by salary in job search.
5.3.1.2 Hypothesis 2: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the stronger current working conditions is as a motivator for seeking a new job

In Hypothesis 2, the importance of current working conditions is examined across the job supervision responsibility groups. Table 14 shows the ANOVA table in verifying Hypothesis 2.

Table 14: ANOVA for Job Supervision Responsibility and Current Working Conditions

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>4.859</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>1.620</td>
<td>7.145</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>88.851</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.227</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>93.710</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In table 14 above, the F test is 7.145 and p <0.01 and these results indicate the differences between the groups. It reveals that group place different importance on current working conditions when do a job search. However, F test could not show specific group differences. Thus, Post-hoc tests were conducted, and the results are below.
Table 15: Test of group differences: Current working conditions and Job Supervision Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Supervision Responsibility</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One-way ANOVA test of mean differences</td>
<td>CWC&lt;sup&gt;3&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>F=7.145***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No supervision (NS)</td>
<td>3.9428</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided (G)</td>
<td>4.1538</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise (S)</td>
<td>4.1875</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plan (SP)</td>
<td>4.3241</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (all groups)</td>
<td>4.1356</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Post Hoc LSD Test of Mean differences**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparison</th>
<th>p Value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans &gt; No Supervision</td>
<td>*0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise &gt; No Supervision</td>
<td>*0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide &gt; No Supervision</td>
<td>*0.001</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans &gt; Guide</td>
<td>*0.035</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise &gt; Guide</td>
<td>0.592</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans &gt; Supervise</td>
<td>0.128</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p < 0.01, **p<0.05, *p<0.1

Table 15 illustrates that employees with No Supervision responsibility place different importance on current working conditions compared to employees with at least some Job Supervision Responsibility, regardless of their supervision level. The means plotted in Figure 7 illustrate the mean differences across the groups.

---

<sup>3</sup> Current working conditions
Figure 7: Means Plot between CWC (Current working conditions) and job responsibility

Figure 7 shows the four-means importance of current working conditions across the four supervision groups, a result that supports Hypothesis 2.
5.3.1.3 Hypothesis 3: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the greater the job itself is as a motivator for seeking a new job

Hypothesis 3 tests for changes in importance of the job itself across the groups of supervision responsibility. Table 16 displays the ANOVA table for these variances.

Table 16: ANOVA for Job itself and Job Supervision Responsibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>12.831</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4.277</td>
<td>13.231</td>
<td>.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>126.717</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.323</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>139.549</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 16 highlights a significant ANOVA test with $F, 13.231, p <0.01$, indicating that importance of the job itself changes across the job supervision responsibility groups.

To determine specific group differences, LSD post hoc multiple comparisons were conducted, and the results reported in Table 17.
Table 17: Test of group differences: Job Itself and Job Supervision Responsibilities

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Job Supervision Responsibility</th>
<th>Mean</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>One-way ANOVA test of mean differences</td>
<td>Job Itself F=13.231*</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>No Supervision (NS)</td>
<td>3.7214</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guided (G)</td>
<td>4.1420</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise (S)</td>
<td>4.0788</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plan (SP)</td>
<td>4.2826</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mean (all groups)</td>
<td>4.0571</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Post Hoc LSD Test of Mean differences

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparison</th>
<th>p-value</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans &gt; No Supervision</td>
<td>*0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise &gt; No Supervision</td>
<td>*0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Guide &gt; No Supervision</td>
<td>*0.000</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans &gt; Guide</td>
<td>0.144</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise &gt; Guide</td>
<td>0.401</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Supervise and Plans &gt; Supervise</td>
<td>0.058</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***p < 0.01, **p< 0.05, *p<0.1

The results indicate that those employees in the higher job supervision responsibilities groups consider the nature of the job as more important when seeking new employment, thus supporting Hypothesis 3. These means differences are illustrated in Figure below.
Figure 8: Means Plot between Job Itself and Job Supervision Responsibility

Figure 8 shows the higher responsible groups placed more importance on Job Itself as a driver in their job search compared with the group with no supervision responsibility. The results support Hypothesis 3.

5.3.1.4 Summary of Research Objective One

Hypotheses 1, 2 and 3 were developed to answer Research Objective 1, which was to examine the backgrounds of employees and group them into levels of job supervision responsibility and to identify the relationships with these groups and job search motivation drivers. The results suggest that when searching for a new job, those with higher job supervision responsibility level are more influenced by salary, current working conditions and the job itself than those with little or no supervision responsibility.
5.3.2 Measuring Specific Job-Related Information

This section discusses the analysis to achieve the Research Objective 2, which examines the effect of job supervision responsibility on specific job-related information. This section starts with testing of Hypothesis 4, 5, 6 and 7 then followed by a test of group differences. The aim was to see whether there were differences in the importance of specific job-related information across the low to high job supervision responsibility groupings.

5.3.2.1 Hypothesis 4: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the more emphasis he or she places on Job-Content information

In Hypothesis 4, the variance is analysed in terms of preference of Job-Content Information while undertaking a job search. Table 18 illustrates the ANOVA table for Job-Content Information across job supervision responsibilities groups.

Table 18: ANOVA for Job Content Information and Job Supervision Responsibility

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.001</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.334</td>
<td>2.479</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>52.753</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53.754</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 18 reports the results of the ANOVA, with F, 2.479, p >0.05, the results indicate that there were no significant differences found between the job responsibilities group in preference towards job-content information during their job search. Hypothesis 4 was therefore not supported.
5.3.2.2 **Hypothesis 5**: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the more emphasis he or she places on information indicating Job Context Salary and Non-Salary Information

Hypothesis 5 tests whether job seekers with higher levels of supervision responsibility place more emphasis on job context salary and non-salary information than those with lower levels of supervision responsibility. Table 19 shows the ANOVA result for this hypothesis test.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.382</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.127</td>
<td>.939</td>
<td>.422</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>53.164</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53.546</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 19 shows the ANOVA was not significant, with F, 0.939 and p > 0.05. These two results indicate that no significant differences were found in the emphasis place on job-context (salary and non-Salary) information between the four groups of low to high supervision responsibility. Thus, a conclusion cannot be made as to whether the higher responsibility the employee bears, the greater he or she emphasises on job-context information in job search process. Therefore, Hypothesis 5 was not supported.
5.3.2.3 Hypothesis 6: The lower the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the more emphasis he or she places on information indicating salary only

This hypothesis focuses on the preference of employees to choose Salary information in a job search process. Table 20 shows the ANOVA table to see differences in selecting salary information among the job supervision responsibility groupings.

Table 20: ANOVA for Salary Job-Context Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>0.842</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>0.281</td>
<td>0.993</td>
<td>0.396</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>110.856</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>0.283</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>111.699</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 20 reveals the ANOVA was not significant with F test 0.939 and p >0.05. These results indicate that no differences between the groups of job supervision responsibility were found in terms of selecting salary job-context information while doing a job search. Thus, Hypothesis 6 was not supported.

5.3.2.4 Hypothesis 7: The lower the level of responsibility of the job seeker in his or her current position, the more emphasis he/she places on information regarding job security, supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policies and working conditions

Hypothesis 7 tests for changes across job supervision responsibility groups in their preference towards non-salary job-context information (job security, supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policies and working conditions). Table 21 depicts the result for Hypothesis 7.
Table 21: ANOVA for Non-Salary Job-Context Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>Df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.358</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.119</td>
<td>.818</td>
<td>.485</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>57.219</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.146</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57.577</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 21 shows non-significant ANOVA findings. The F test is 0.818 and p>0.05. The findings depict that no differences were found between the groups of job supervision responsibility for their preference towards non-salary job-context information selection in job search process. Therefore, Hypothesis 7 was not supported.

5.3.2.5 Summary of Research Objective Two

For investigating Research Objective 2, four hypotheses (H4, H5, H6, H7) were developed. The thrust of Research Objective 2 was to explore the relationships between job supervision responsibility and specific job-related information. From the results, this current research failed to show that employees with different levels of job supervision responsibility sought different specific job-related information. The results for Hypothesis 4, 5, 6 and 7 were not significant indicating that the results did not support Hypothesis 4, 5, 6 and 7.

5.3.3 Relationship between Job Search Motivation Drivers and Specific Job-Related Information

In order to answer Research Objective 3, a test was computed to measure the relationships between job search motivation and specific job-related information. Three hypotheses (H8: There is a positive relationship between salary as a motivator for the job seeker and the importance of salary information in the job search. H9: There is a positive relationship between current working conditions and the
importance of job context information, and H10: There is a positive relationship between the job itself and job content information) were formulated and the results are presented in Table 22.

Table 22: Correlations between Job Search Drivers and Specific Job-Related Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Salary Job-Context</th>
<th>Non-Salary Job Context</th>
<th>Job-Content</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Search Motivation</td>
<td>0.196***</td>
<td>0.179***</td>
<td>0.297***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>(r^2 = 3.84%)</td>
<td>(r^2 = 3.20%)</td>
<td>(r^2 = 8.82%)</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

*** Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

Table 22 shows the test for Hypothesis 8 determined a positive significant correlation (0.196) between job search motivation and salary job-context (p<0.01), indicating that there is a positive relationship between salary motivation factor and emphasis on job context salary information when seeking a new job. Thus, this result provides support for Hypothesis 8. The table also shows the result for Hypothesis 9 with a significant correlation (0.0179) between job search motivation and non-salary job-context information (p<0.01). This result indicates that there is a positive relationship between job search motivation and the emphasis placed on job context non-salary information when seeking a new job. Thus, there is support for Hypothesis 9. Also found, was a positive significant correlation (0.297) between job search motivation and job-content (p<0.01) indicating a positive relationship between job search motivation and the emphasis placed on job content information when seeking a new job. This provides support for Hypothesis 10. The r^2 for variance of job search motivation explained are: salary job-context information (3.84%), non-salary job context information (3.20%) and job-content information (8.82). Out of three, the
largest variance explained was related to Hypothesis 10. While the variance explained by each of the hypotheses were not considered large, so the results are still significant.

Table 23 provides the details for Hypothesis 9 and 10 because of the significant relationships. The detail covers only the variances between 1) current working condition as a motivator and job context non-salary information and Table 24 covers the variance between job itself and job-content information. Hypothesis 8 (between salary as a motivator for the job seeker and the importance of salary information in the job search) is not included in this table due to its measurement of only salary information and therefore no opportunities for further comparison. Hypothesis 8’s relationship is between current working conditions as a motivator and job context non-salary information.

**Table 23: Correlations between Current Working Conditions and Job Context Non-Salary Information**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Current Working Conditions</th>
<th>Interpersonal Relationship</th>
<th>Supervision</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>0.268***</td>
<td>0.131***</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>$r^2 = 7.18%$</td>
<td>$r^2 = 1.72%$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

***Correlation is significant at the 0.01 level

The results indicate that employees with current working conditions as a motivation driver greatly value information on interpersonal relationships and supervision when seeking a new job. The $r^2$ reflects the changes made by the research scale. Table 23 shows that the changes made by interpersonal relationship is at 7.18% and by Supervision only at 1.72%. It is a small variance but it still significant though only on these two scales instead of five scales. This result provides support for Hypothesis 9.
Table 24: Correlations Between Job Itself and Job-Content Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Responsibility</th>
<th>Recognition</th>
<th>Achievement</th>
<th>Advancement</th>
<th>Nature of the job</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Job Itself</td>
<td>0.757</td>
<td>0.760</td>
<td>0.639</td>
<td>0.653</td>
<td>0.551</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$r^2 = 57.30%$</td>
<td>$r^2 = 57.76%$</td>
<td>$r^2 = 40.83%$</td>
<td>$r^2 = 42.64%$</td>
<td>$r^2 = 30.36%$</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The results also indicate that employees with job itself as a motivation driver greatly value information on responsibility, recognition, achievement, advancement and nature of the job when seeking a new job. The $r^2$ reflects the changes made by the research scale. Table 24 shows that the changes made by responsibility is at 57.30%, by recognition is 57.76%, achievement is 40.83%, advancement is 42.64% and by nature of the job is 30.36%. These are significant changes to the job itself construct towards a group of job supervision responsibility. Thus, providing support for Hypothesis 10.

5.3.4. Summary for Research Objective Three

To examine Research Objective 3, Hypotheses 8, 9 and 10 were proposed. Hypotheses 8, 9 and 10 were found to be significant. Overall, the results reveal that there are relationships between: (1) salary as a motivator and job-context salary information; (2) current working conditions as a motivator and job-context non-salary information; and (3) job itself as a motivator and job-content information. Table 25 shows a summary of the results for Research Objective 3.
Table 25: A Summary of Research Objective Three

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relationship between job search motivation and specific job-related information</th>
<th>Employees with different motivation perspectives seek different specific information:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(1) employees with Salary motivation seek Job-Context Salary Information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(2) employees with Current Working Conditions motivation seek Job-Context Non-Salary Information.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>3) employees with Job Itself motivation seek Job-Content Information.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5.4 Summary Results

This chapter has examined the research questions and hypotheses proposed in the thesis. The mean calculations were used to examine the importance of job search motivation factors. Cross-tabulation was used to summarise the relationships between two categorical variables. Finally, ANOVA and correlation bivariate was used to test the relationships between job supervision responsibility levels, job search motivation factors and specific job-related information. A summary of the findings of the hypotheses tests are displayed in Table 26.
**Table 26: Summary of the Findings**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Test</th>
<th>Result</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Cross-tabulation table regarding job categories and job supervision responsibility levels.</td>
<td>The preliminary result from the current study suggests that if an employee holds a professional job, he or she may not be expected to have high supervision responsibility.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H1: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in their current position, the stronger salary is as a motivator for seeking a new job.</td>
<td>Supported. Salary is a stronger motivator in seeking a new job with higher job supervision responsibilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H2: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in their current position, the stronger current working conditions is as a motivator for seeking a new job.</td>
<td>Supported.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H3: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in their current position, the greater “the job itself” is as a motivator for seeking a new job.</td>
<td>Supported. Job itself is a strong predictor of job search motivation factors for higher job supervision responsibilities.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H4: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in their current position, the more emphasis they place on job content information.</td>
<td>Not supported. But the condition is the relationship is highly significant but negative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H5: The higher the level of responsibility of the job seeker in their current position, the more emphasis they place on information indicating job context salary and non-salary information.</td>
<td>Not significant, providing no support.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H6: The lower the level of responsibility of the job seeker in their current position, the more emphasis they place on information indicating salary.</td>
<td>Not significant, providing no support</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>H7: The lower the level of responsibility of the job seeker in their current position, the more emphasis they place on information about job security, supervision, interpersonal relationships, company policies and working conditions.</td>
<td>Not significant, providing no support</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
H8: There is a positive relationship between salary as a motivator for the job seeker and the importance of salary job context information.  
Supported

H9: There is a positive relationship between the current working conditions of job seekers and the importance of non-salary job context information.  
Supported

H10: There is a positive relationship between the job itself for job seekers and job content information.  
Supported

5.5 Exploratory research question 2: Would the result in Research Objective 2 is improved if the Occupation is analysed instead of Job Supervision Responsibility?

Table 26 shows that no significant differences were found between job supervision responsibility and specific job-related information. While this a disappointing result, it was anticipated that results may differ from those found in previous research, where occupation instead of job supervision responsibility. This analysis is named Exploratory Research Question 2 is with results shown next.

Table 27 shows the ANOVA results using occupations instead of job supervision responsibility as a grouping variable, showing the exploratory findings between occupation and specific job-related information.
Table 27: ANOVA for Occupation and Specific Job-Related Information

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Information</th>
<th>Sum of Squares</th>
<th>df</th>
<th>Mean Square</th>
<th>F</th>
<th>Sig.</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Salary Job-Context Information</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>1.425</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.475</td>
<td>1.688</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>110.274</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.281</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>111.699</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job Content Information</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.538</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.179</td>
<td>1.320</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>53.216</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.136</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53.754</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Non-Salary Job-Context Information</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.782</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.261</td>
<td>1.798</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>56.796</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.145</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>57.577</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Job-Context Information (the overall)</td>
<td>Between Groups</td>
<td>.779</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>.260</td>
<td>1.930</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Within Groups</td>
<td>52.766</td>
<td>392</td>
<td>.135</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Total</td>
<td>53.546</td>
<td>395</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Table 27 reveals the ANOVA results were not significant. This result indicates that even though it been analysed using different grouping construct of occupation, significant changes in the job context and job content across the occupation groups, it was not significant. While this is not an endorsement for using job supervision responsibility in this research, it suggests that the choice of using job supervision responsibility instead of occupation did not have adverse impact on the research results.
6.0 Introduction to discussion

This thesis examines the role of job search motivation and specific job-related information in the context of job information seeking behaviour. The research model tests the 1) direct relationship between employee background and job search motivation and specific job-related information, and 2) indirect relationships between employee background and specific job-related information.

The relationship between motivation for seeking a new job and how information is utilised in the search process in the rapidly evolving internet age is problematic for both the job seeker and businesses that hope to attract talented applicants. In an era where technology is changing rapidly, evolution in the way in which people seek new employment opportunities and evaluate the information they discover in the process is likely to differ from more traditional mechanisms. This research project has examined several hypotheses that have some potential for furthering our understanding of this changing and complicated process.

Implications from research results suggest a potential revision to be conceptual framework for future research in this area. In the sections that follow, the details of research findings will be discussed, including the conceptual model, the successful aspects of the current conceptual model and the proposal of a new conceptual model that is more aligned with the results of the hypotheses testing.
6.1 The conceptual model.

The conceptual model developed for this project was a synthesis of two previously independent theoretical perspective, including those focusing on job search motivation and job search information. This new formulation selected individual components from model proposed in the literature that would logically contribute to the end phenomenon. Motivational factors that significantly contributed to the theory were salary, current working conditions and job itself. These drivers play a significant role in influencing employee’s selection towards types of job information that are thus likely to contribute significantly to the decision on job seeker will make.

The results of analysis, document a significant relationship that is between job search motivation and job search information. This relationship is dominant by job supervision responsibility. Analysis revealed that employees who hold higher levels of job supervision responsibility are more motivated by salary, current working conditions and job itself. This result tells us that those with more complex job supervision responsibility are looking for higher salaries, better current working conditions and the better job itself characteristics.

These present findings such as salary, current working conditions and the job itself are the motivator drivers. These findings are similar with Kubo and Saka (2002), who related their findings to job performance. The factors that used were the monetary incentive, human resource development, and job autonomy. Each of these factors is different in the view from this thesis but they share a similar function, that is to motivate employees. For example, monetary incentives are a reward given to employee based on their performance. It is a financially based reward and can
include cash bonus, profit sharing and other monetary rewards. These rewards are
given due to motivate employees to have a better performance in the future.

However, this present thesis focuses on salary as it relates to job search. The present
finding highlights that salary is preferred by all levels of employees. This finding is
similar with Lu et al., (2005) and Aziri (2011). This study uses salary as an
employee’s job search motivation driver. Hence whether it is monetary incentives or
salary, both are motivation factors that motivates employees in the aspect of the
environment of the job with a specific monetary basis.

The same goes for the second and third factor in Kubo and Saka which are human
resources development and job autonomy. Both are motivating employees’ job itself,
but specific only in that it develops the careers and the freedom of doing a job. These
factors are focussed more on job performance motivation. As mentioned earlier,
Kubo and Saka’s factors are comparable, but are specified differently from this
present thesis. The job itself is the focus but specifically focussed on responsibility,
promotion, advancement, recognition and nature of the job itself (challenging and
enjoyable).

Besides, the present thesis also employs current working conditions as job search
motivation drivers. Salary motivates employees based on a financial element, but
current working conditions motivate employees with non-financially based elements
such as interpersonal relationships, supervision, policy company, job security and the
at work place.
The main finding of this thesis is that employees who have higher job supervision responsibilities treated salary as their primary motivation driver in the job search process. It is understood that as engaged employees; potentially their decisions and motivations are regulated by their life commitment, for instance, having an outstanding debt makes earning money a necessity. Unstable economic conditions likely make employee more cautious, they not only afraid of losing their job, they are also sensitive to salary levels that incompatible with the demands life places upon them. These conditions amplify the importance of salary (Kubo & Saka, 2002; Islam & Ahmad Zaki, 2008; Tang & Waheed, 2011). Besides, Geoffrey et al., (2010), Ellis (1996b) and Armstrong (1971) have all commented on the relationship between the greater responsibility on the job and salary. Summers and Hendriks (1991) suggested that dissatisfaction with salary may contribute to job search and yet not necessarily affect the job performance.

Example of employees motivated by salary levels can be seen in a variety of industries including sales (Tang & Waheed, 2011) or industrial employee (Islam & Mohd Zaki, 2008) or Health service (Dieleman, Cuong, & Martineau, 2003), and Finance (Kubo & Saka, 2002). These findings show that salary is an important motivation factor regardless of the nature of the job. However, as these were conducted primarily in the Pacific Rim—Malaysia, Vietnam, and Japan—these results might be limited to only an Asian perspective.

However, the notion that this relationship applies only in one geographic region does not appear to be supported in the literature. Islam and Mohd Zaki (2008), for example, have compared Malaysia to the United States regarding the ranking of the importance
of salary to job search. Salary was ranked the number one motivator in the USA. Such comparisons demonstrate the importance of salary in the motivation of job performance and confirm the relevance of salary as one of the principal drivers of job search.

Also, several studies have provided findings similar to those in this thesis. The present study’s findings reveal that job search efforts of employees holding higher-order positions are likely to be driven by current working. This finding is similar to those published by Tang and Waheed, (2011), Islam and Zaki, (2008) and Rowley, (1996).

The theoretical components making up the concept of current working conditions has an impact in motivating the employees to search for new employment, and this point has rarely received mush research attention. The present thesis has determined which of these components actively play a role in job search motivation in making a unique contribution to this field of research. In particular, these are; interpersonal relationships and supervision; both significantly influencing job search motivation.

Overall, current working conditions play a significant role in employee motivation, regardless of employee background. A pleasant working environment appears to substantially contribute to employees being content to perform their job (Kaufman & Fetters, 1980). This thesis was able to establish that current working conditions is one of the significant drivers of job search motivation.
The final set of drivers relates to unique job characteristics that are directly linked to the concept of the Job Itself. An individual who wants to experience growth in their job makes this a part of their motivation to expand their job scope. The opportunities for enrichment or lack of them in a job may result in a significant difference in work motivation. It appears that the higher the level of job responsibility, the more likely there are to be opportunities for job enrichment. This, in turn, leads to greater job satisfaction and a lower degree of job search motivation.

This result is similar to the findings of Leung and Clegg (2001). They study emphasised that junior employees in public sector job in Hong Kong are motivated by the opportunities to enhance their job responsibility and perform better as consequence. This is contrast to the situation of senior employees, who were motivated by job achievement and acknowledgement of a job well done upon finishing a task. Leung and Clegg (2001) found that regardless of the level of the job position, the characteristics of the job itself had consequences for motivation. This finding might also establish that age, or career entry might influence job achievement.

Geoffrey et al. (2010) highlight that the higher level of job position, the more the job itself was employee’s job motivation driver. The Labor Relations Institute of New York had researched research employee motivation which revealed that recognition of the employee and the nature of the job—that it was exciting, challenging and enjoyable were primary job motivation factors (Hersey & Blanchard, 1969) reinforce that the job itself is a motivation driver. This thesis argues characteristics of the job itself are elemental for employees in stimulating growth in their career. This holds, regardless of the level of employee job supervision responsibility.
This thesis has found the relationship between 1) salary as a significant job search motivation driver and job context information, 2) current working conditions as a job search motivation driver and non-salary job context information and 3) job itself as a job search motivation driver and job content information. These findings are consistent with a study by Akintoye (2000), as cited in Tella et al. (2007). Employees who have salary as job motivation drivers are more motivated to find out about salary information in their job search process.

Current working conditions has a relationship with seeking non-salary job information. Employees who are actively motivated by current working conditions tend to search more for Non-Salary Job Context Information. This study, therefore, provides an outcome that agrees with Nujjoo and Meyer (2012), and Armstrong (1971). It is evident from the present study that information regarding the non-salary job context information is important for employees looking for alternative jobs. Evaluating working conditions information available to them (e.g., the fairness of company policies, friendliness in interpersonal relationships) is essential for employees to develop confidence in the environment within the organisation they might consider for employment beyond their current position. Furthermore, by searching for information on current working conditions, employees are likely to increase their intrinsic motivation, and hence, assist the employees in developing greater motivation towards the job itself in their current positions.

Finally, the elements of job itself has a role in job search motivation and the discovery of job content information. This result is similar to Kim and Cha (2000), and Ellis
These studies emphasised that employees who have one of the elements of the job itself as job search motivation driver influence the selection of job content information characteristics. Overall, the relationship between job search motivation and specific job-related information and its role in motivating job search behaviour is crucial in determining information seeking behaviour.

6.1.1 Theoretical Research Implications

The nature of the relationships between job search motivation and specific job-related information revealed in this thesis have been reviewed and linked to literature but theoretically, the findings contribute by adding a new construct for measuring a potentially powerful search motivator, and in focusing on a previously ignored type of information in past information-seeking behaviour model.

The new variable of job supervision responsibility has been added for two reasons. Firstly, regarding theory, the construct "level of job supervision responsibility" does not necessarily represent the level of job or job category. Manove (1997) noted that job supervision responsibility could be known after employees start their job. From the cross-tabulation analysis utilised in the current project, it was found that employees in lower level job categories are not necessarily holding low levels of supervision responsibility. Further, there were employees in high-level job categories with small job supervision responsibilities.

Secondly, this study extends the composite area of job information and job motivation research. Previous studies in the field of job information and its relationship to job motivation have focused on outcome measures such as job performance, satisfaction,
and stress (Morris & Venkatesh, 2010; Karasek et al., 1998; Hackman et al., 1976;).

These studies can be considered to research in the area of job hiring, something different to the current study’s focuses on the elements of dissatisfaction leading to job search.

However, the constructs of job search and job hire are so closely related that they can be treated as completely integrated since both processes are necessary for employees to gain employment. Besides, this thesis has emphasised a new concept that has not been a focus of previous research, the exclusion of salary from job context factors. This approach has some justification, as salary information is not influenced by closer interpersonal relationships, better supervision, sound policies, or the environmental conditions of the workplace. Hence, salary needs to be measured as an individual item.

Thus, a new contribution to job context (non-salary) information has been proposed and added to the research model. The new contribution helps the researcher to categorise or more finely specify the information. Such information is valuable to potential job seekers because not all employees will take a similar approach when selecting the most relevant job context information. Some employees decide that salary information as a priority while other employees give greater priority to other elements of job context information (policy, supervision, interpersonal relationships and working conditions). This study found that salary is viewed as the most relevant item of information, followed by the rest of the job context information. Previous research findings that have put ‘salary’ and ‘non-salary’ into a single category: job context information. Therefore, the current findings are likely to assist researchers in
the future by specifying the type of information to generate within measures of job context information.

6.1.2 Managerial Research Implication

From a practical standpoint, the outcomes of this project may be able to help managers understand the stimuli behind employee motivation thoroughly. The consequence of this, however, is that the organisation either retains or loses quality employees. Firstly, when a manager can understand employees’ motivation, this allows in him or her being able to prepare the ideal job design that will encompass the right job characteristics, those most desirable to potential employees. This ideal job design is necessary to maximise the likelihood of the best fit between employees and the organisation. This suggestion is consistent with recruitment theory (Breaugh, 2012; Billsberry, 2008; Billsberry, 2007; Barber, 1998; Rynes, 1991).

Secondly, the ability of the manager to understand the role played by extrinsic and intrinsic motivation is very important. Understanding the approach taken by the researcher may help a manager to prepare strategies for solving, decreasing fundamental motivation problems amongst employees, which occurs when the overt need is greater than the intrinsic motivation. It is important that employees’ intrinsic motivation is recognised as this helps employees experience a sense of belonging towards the organisation, which in turn will benefit the organisation with its long-term outcomes, such as productivity and profitability. Academics in motivation have argued that intrinsic motivation is important in generating positive employee attitudes (Cho & Perry, 2012) that lead to positive job outcomes.
The evidence drawn from this current study will enable employers and managers to prepare strategies for dealing with employees who hold higher levels of job supervision responsibility. Potential employees will be attracted to the organisation because they will be able to see the organisation as a good fit with their goals, needs, and experience. Since salary is one of the most important jobs search motivation factors and is likely to be the most valuable information sought, it is, therefore, necessary for employers and managers to provide a job description that specifies salary characteristics.

Flowing from the above discussion, the organisation could consider that job enrichment also needs to be focused on specifically. This focus should also be reflected in their job design to attract quality job applicants. This is especially the case for the higher levels of job supervision responsibility. In addition, employers and managers could enrich the job characteristics they believe are most relevant to the target group of potential employees. Job enrichment is likely able to motivate employees to perform better and thus to generate job satisfaction within the employees. Incorporating the findings of this research into their operations could help organisations reduce negative recruiting issues, which would, in turn, lead to generating positive employee behaviour.

Pleasant current working conditions is crucial as well because it facilitates employees to increase their job satisfaction. The more employees who are satisfied in part, indicates that they are suited to the organisation environment. Hence, this improvement helps the organisation to generate positive employee behaviour, ultimately providing the organisation with increased productivity and profitability.
6.2 The proposed model was successfully applied in the recruiting context

The model works well in the recruiting context. Theoretically, a success recruiting model describing the pool of quality and quantity potential applicants that the organization will have. This achievement is due to the model able to attract more potential qualified candidates to apply for the job, hence increasing the number of job acceptance.

This view like those provided by other scholars working in the job seeking and recruitment fields. For example, success has been conceptualised by recruiting models to consists of effective organisational practices that finally lead to generation of a pool of quality, qualified potential applicants (Rynes, 1989) and ultimately to job applicant acceptance (Breaugh, 1992).

Another highlight of the proposed model is the identification of essential key components that are needed to be considered most carefully in the recruiting process. These components include background of employees, what type of job search motivation and what kind of specific information they sought in their job search process. These suggested core components are crucial because they are likely to produces a better match between potential employees and the organisation (Momin & Mishra, 2015) and satisfaction of these arguably lead to potentially positive job outcomes (Swider et al., 2015; Sangeetha, 2010) for both organisation and new employee.
All the above key points in the research framework were tested in this thesis. Initially, the research conducted test between 1) employee background and job search motivation, 2) employee background and specific job-related information and 3) job search motivation and specific job-related information. These three key points were tested with ten hypotheses.

The first three hypotheses (H1, H2, H3) were tested, referring to employee background and job search motivation. Hypotheses H4, H5, H6, and H7 tested the indirect relationships between employee background. Three hypotheses (H8, H9, H10) were tested to evaluate the relationships between job search motivation and specific job-related information. Figure 6.1 provides the research framework indicating the hypothesised linkages between the model’s core concepts.

![Figure 6.1: The three key points of Information Seeking Behaviour (original)](image)

The analytical results for the testing H1, H2 and H3 provided support for all three. These findings show that different background of employees leads to different job search motivation. As was discussed in the literature review above, the job search
process occurs as a consequence of the dissatisfaction that employees experienced. This finding confirms the work published by Cable and Edwards (2004). However, motivation to leave a position and to search for a new one differs between individuals because each has their own basic needs, though common psychological needs. Motivations for change lead employees to find organisations where their needs are better met than at the position they intend to leave (Mohsin et al., 2013; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kristof, 1996).

Results presented in this study are similar to the predictions made for theories of psychological need fulfilment, an employee is unlikely to be happy if there is a poor match between their needs and what they expect to get in return from the organisation (Koen et al., 2016; O'Reilly et al., 1991; French, Caplan & Harrison, 1982). It is crucial to have a fit between employee and organisation because this can lead to greater reliability of the employment relationship (Cable & Edwards, 2004).

The general logic of the employment relationship is that job acceptance by the employee suggest they will be happy with the job (Tsui et al., 1997). The failure to have a good fit between employee and organisation will logically lead to employees searching for a new job opportunity (Frey & Stutzer, 2010; Boswell et al., 2006; Kanfer et al., 2001; Locke, 1976). Also, having a good fit in the employment relationship indicates that the employees have an acceptable level of job satisfaction. Such a good fit situation can be considered a reflection of the recruiting method’s ability to attract applicants from potential employees.
The second group of hypotheses (H4 H5, H6 and H7) were tested. Results of the analysis showed that none of them were supported. This thesis tested these hypotheses among different job supervision responsibility and selection of specific job-related information. It was found that different level of job supervision responsibility did not reflect the selection in job type information considered in the application process.

In previous work, scholars tested across job types and the selection of job type information made by potential applicants. For example, Armstrong (1971) tested on assemblers and engineers and found that assemblers prefer job context information while engineers prefer job content information in their job search process. But in Choo, Norsiah and Tan (2012), however, noted that engineers select both job content and job context information in their job search process. This is similar to Kaufman and Fetters (1980), who revealed that accountants also prefer both types of information: job content and job context information in their job search process.

The research findings also suggest that all job types need both types of job information in determining their future job decision. The level of job supervision responsibility does not play any role in selecting job type information; both types of information appear to be equally important in job search process. However, it is too early to establish this assumption. Nevertheless, it can be seen that from previous outcomes, the findings on job search and job information are outdated, the only recent one was in 2012 by Choo, Norsiah and Tan (2012). This area needs to be empirically explored further.
Finally, the last group of hypotheses (H8, H9, H10) were tested for the relationship between job search motivation and specific job-related information. All hypotheses were supported by the analysis. These hypotheses indicated that the drivers of job search motivation determine specific job-related information sought in employees’ job search process. Herzberg (1966) argued in this theory that motivation is influenced by both intrinsic and extrinsic factor.

Intrinsic factors focus on the job’s level of responsibility, and include the recognition received when a job is done, whether advancement is offered to improve the performance of the job and the nature of the job, whether it is interesting or challenging. For the concept of job type information, previous scholars classified information into two types: job content and job context information (Ellis, 1996; Armstrong, 1971). According to Ellis (1996) job content information is all information about the job itself, including the level of responsibility, means of recognition, paths to advancement, expectations for promotion and nature of the job. Logically, intrinsic factor and job content information must relate, as the former are specifications of the latter.

Extrinsic factors refer to dynamics that potentially facilitate employees reducing their job dissatisfaction. These extrinsic factors are related to the environment in which the employees do or finish their job; the factors are such as salary, interpersonal relationships, supervision, security, the environment of working place. Job Context refers to all information about the surroundings of the job (Ellis, 1996). For example, information on company policy, supervision and condition of the working environment.
It appears that intrinsic and extrinsic motivation factors, job content and context information are related. Intrinsic and extrinsic factors relate to motivation, and both produce satisfaction (Herzberg, 1956). In this thesis, the coverage is focused on the job search. When employees have no job satisfaction, they are not happy which will likely lead to a search for an alternative job opportunity. To gain job satisfaction, employees will search for information that is most related to the motivation they have for seeking a new position. Previous research documented that different job types display different preferences over information types (Choo et al., 2012; Armstrong, 1971), and different preferences on job motivation (Nujjoo et al., 2012; Geoffrey et al., 2010; Kaufman & Fetters, 1980). This thesis investigated the background of employees and job motivation then, between job motivation and job type information.

Some interesting conclusions can be drawn from the hypotheses supported by the analysis. The discussion above showed that the hypotheses about a relationship between the different background of employees and specific job-related information are not valid. Only the direct relationships that are H1, H2, H3, H8, H9, H10 are all supported. This thesis documents that employees with different levels of job supervision responsibility will have a different perspective on job search motivation. Analytically, the most noticeable difference was between those with No Supervision (the lowest level) responsibility and those that Supervise and Plan (the highest level). At the highest level, that is, those who both, Supervise and Plan are motivated by salary, current working condition and job itself. This result is tempered by the selection of job type information. For those who are motivated by salary, finding salary job-context information is preferred. Employees motivated by their current
working conditions prefer to seek job context information while finding job-content information is preferred by employees who are Job Itself motivated.

The results showed that information seeking behaviour for current employee is mainly influenced by the level of job supervision responsibility, job search motivation and specific job-related information. These key points pertain to a good match between job search motivation and specific job-related information generating employee’s job satisfaction. This result indicates that they have an active employment relationship. Previous scholars note that a reliable employment relationship is reflected in job acceptance and happiness in the job, ultimately job satisfaction, and long job tenure (Frey & Stutzer, 2010; Boswell et al., 2006; Cable & Edwards, 2004; Kanfer et al., 2001; Tsui et al., 1997; Locke, 1976).

Since this coverage focusses on currently employees (in work), job enrichment has become a necessity when they consider upgrading their job level. Job enrichment must be able to strengthen the individual and satisfy their growth needs and to potentially lead to achieving greater success in doing their jobs (Tyagi 1985). The job enrichment thus enhances interpretations of job characteristics and leads to improving job satisfaction.

Extrinsic motivation factors help to provide a healthy work environment for the organisation. Hakel (1967), and Tietjen and Myers (1998) determined that good company policy and good or poor physical surroundings on the job or the facilities are crucial for doing work. It seems that good extrinsic factors attract and help retain employees along with facilitating high job performance.
This thesis extends what we know about recruitment decision making. In the past, many scholars publishing in the recruitment literature have emphasised that the process of recruitment begins with attracting a pool of qualified potential employees to search for a job. Then, based on the filtering conducted by the HR department, a letter of the job offer might be issued. Attraction is gained through a job advertisement, which in modern times can be either online or offline. The question; is the type of job advertisement used instrumental in attracting qualified employees to apply for that a particular job? Further, how important is the information provided via the job advertisement? From the former to the latter, the issue was the same; if the information provided is vague (Handel, 2017) and / or imperfect (Eyupoglu, Jabbarova & Alieyeva, 2017), the sources might not help in gathering the quality of potential employees, even though it might be read by a high number of potential employees.

In conclusion, the proposed research model was successfully applied to the recruiting context which mainly considers the direct relationships between employee background, job search motivation and specific job-related information. Employees that have the highest level of job supervision responsibility are motivated with salary, current working conditions and job itself. These motivations lead to the specific job-related information choices in the search for a new position. This framework might help potential employees to make a right decision considering their desired fit and hence lead to a better job placement and healthy work environment. All of these might improve employees job satisfaction.
6.3 A simplified and perhaps improved conceptual model

Analytic results did not support hypothesis 4, 5, 6, and 7. These hypotheses tested a potential relationship between employee background and specific job-related information. These relationships were thought to be an “indirect” type. Those potential relationships were investigated to determine whether the different background of employees leads to particular preference in job information selection. Also, the present thesis wants to study is there any differences of choices between direct relationship (employee background- job search motivation-specific job-related information) and indirect relationships (employee background-specific job related information). The impact could be different between direct and indirect relationships. It confirms that there are different impacts between direct and indirect relationships. This result due to findings that there was no relationship found between level of job supervision responsibility towards specific job-related information. Thus, these hypotheses were not supported.

Support could not be found for hypotheses 4, 5, 6 and 7. As mentioned earlier, these hypotheses mainly investigated the nature of different level of job supervision responsibility and the potential relationship with specific job type information. In job information literature, the previous scholars conducted studies looking for differences in these search characteristics between junior and senior employees, but only in one type of occupation. Kaufman & Fetters (1980) conducted a study on accountant and selection specific job type information. They found regardless of level, both types of accountants preferred both types of job information. Ellis (1996) investigated the profession of secretary and its potential relationship with the selection of the type of job information. Results were similar to those provided by Kaufman & Fetters (1980)
in that all secretaries in the study preferred to find both types of job information. A recent study related to specific job type information was conducted in Malaysia by Choo, Norsiah and Tan (2012). They also found that those in the engineer profession decided to focus on both types of job information, job content and job context in searching their new job opportunities.

Some scholars have found differences across occupations in terms of the most valued type of job information. For instance, Armstrong (1971) found that an Assembler prefers Job Context information. Meanwhile an Engineer prefer Job Content Information. Armstrong found that an assembler is more concerned with job context information. Engineers tended to prefer to consider job content information with making a job seeking decision.

Previous studies have tended to emphasise the importance of occupation in the job search. Rather than focussing on occupation, the current study instead has emphasised the level of job supervision responsibility. If the unsupported relationships are removed from the model (the unsupported relationships from H4, H5, H6 and H7), the resultant model is presented in Figure 6.2
This revised model indicates that information seeking behaviour has a direct relationship 1) employee background (job supervision responsibility) and job search motivation drivers (salary, current working conditions, job itself) and then between 2) job search motivation drivers (salary, current working conditions, job itself) and specific job-related information (salary job context information, non-salary job context information and job content information). This streamlined model is fully supported by this current research and should be further developed and validated.

6.4 Conclusion

Three conclusions can be drawn from this research: 1) the research was successful in combining Motivation and Job Information theories into a workable conceptual model; 2) the proposed model was successfully applied to the recruiting context and 3) some of the hypothesized relationships were not found, but this could lead to a simplified and perhaps improved conceptual model.
Overall, two constructs were used in examining employees’ information seeking behaviour: job search motivation and job specific related information. These were further broken down into three part each. Three drivers of job search motivation were hypothesised in the research model: salary, current working conditions and the job itself. Job specific related information was also measured by three components: job content information, salary job context information, non-salary job context information, used to assess the employees’ information seeking behaviour.

Of particular note, is that the current model managed to combine two theories into one motivation and job information theory. Both theories are concerned with drivers and their components that are thought to work well in the recruiting context. In recruiting, key concepts such as attracting, fit and satisfaction are crucial components of job seeking model. Job search motivation drivers such as salary, current working conditions, and job itself and as well the components of specific job-related information such job content information, salary job context information and non-salary job context information were used to evaluate the information seeking behaviour model.

It is also worthy of note that three groups of hypotheses were used to measure the information seeking behaviour model. The three groups are: 1) H1, H2 and H3 direct measures between employee background and Job Search Motivation, 2) H4, H5, H6 and H7 extended measures between employee background and Specific job-related Information and 3) H8, H9, and H10 direct relationships between Job Search Motivation and Specific Job-Related Information. Among these three groups, the
group two represents H4, H5, H6 and H7 was not supported, leading to a streamlined model.

Finally, the analysis of the hypotheses relationships has led to the development of a new framework. All four hypotheses in group two (H4, H5, H6 and H7) were removed from the framework. It seems that long relationships between employee background and Specific Job-Related Information did not worked well. It shows that direct relationships between the variable are worked well. This framework is fully supported from group one (H1, H2, H3) and three (H8, H9, H10) but need some further research work and validations.
6.5 Limitations

This research was affected by several limitations, which are discussed in the following paragraphs.

Firstly, this research examined the preference of job information made by staffs who are holdings different levels of job supervision responsibility within one organisation. Therefore, the current research cannot generalize the findings to job information seeking that involve the complex relationships between job title and category, and organisational level and job responsibility. These factor (job title, job category, organisational level and job responsibility), however, were beyond the scope of this research. The examination on exploring the complex relationships between job title and category, and organisational level and job responsibility need to be examined in future research.

Secondly, current research also limited its predictors of effectiveness to strategies and awareness that happened within the process of job information seeking. Research should also determine the factors that happen after one enters a new job. For example, research could explore whether the job information preferred able to enhance the employees’ well-being. This is important due to enhance the degree of employees’ loyalty towards the organisation. The longer the employees’ tenure within the organisation, the lower the cost of recruitment will bound by the organisation.

Finally, a possible limitation pertains to the respond of research survey. This is because the core activity of the participating organization that is Tenaga Nasional Berhad involves with production and delivery of electric energy. The sample
contained a large number of employees in technical occupations (engineers and technicians). Engineering and technical jobs are often performed by males. Thus, this research has high percentage of male, the variants in terms of job division (between managerial and technical) is small.

**6.6 Directions for Future Research**

This study found that different background employees have different job search motivation, then led to different types of job information sought. However, the indirect relationships between Job Supervision Responsibility and Specific Job-Related Information were not found.

To be emphasized current research focus only within job supervision responsibility context. It would be recommended to expand the focus context, so that can explore the complexity of relationship between job title and category, and organisational level and job supervision responsibility.

The outcome of current research is to improve employees’ satisfaction. At workplace consideration, job satisfaction is an important dimension of employee well-being (Grant et al, 2007; Schultz et al., 2015; Shimazu et al.,2015). The satisfaction is achieved when the employees have happiness and excitement in performing the task (Russell & Carroll,1999; Shimazu et al.,2015; Pepey et al.,2016).

Future research could explore on job information (job content and job context) that might be able to generate other drivers, like employees’ wellbeing or security. I would also be interesting to examine whether the usage conditions would also work well
with current research framework. It may to added culture to play a part in the present framework. For example, Job hopping is a common recruitment phenomenon happens in Malaysia. It would be interesting if present study extends the target to Malaysian population. If this new target population is used, it may reflect some changes to the present framework or maybe not. I anticipate the changes could be happened due to cultural reason or economic reason. Hence, a further research is needed to confirm or validate which of these; culture or economic will give the impact to the current recruitment phenomenon.
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Appendix A: An English version of questionnaire

Name of project: Information Seeking Behaviour in Recruiting: Examining the background and motivation of job-seeking employees in their search for job content and job context information.

Questionnaire: Part A

Dear Sir/Madam,

My name is Noor Awanis Muslim, and I am working on my P.h.D in Commerce at Lincoln University in New Zealand. As part of my studies, I am undertaking a research project under the supervision of Dr David Dean and Dr David Cohen. This study is investigating job motivation and job characteristics. The study aims to provide useful information about how the amount of choice that an employee has influences job motivation.

You are invited to participate in this research. If you agree, you will be asked to complete the enclosed questionnaire. Any information you provide will be completely anonymous and strictly confidential. Only group results will be reported and no individuals will be identified.

The questionnaire should take around 30 minutes to complete and your participation will be greatly appreciated. You are free to withdraw at any time during the study, in which case your participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained will not be used. You are free to refuse to answer any questions.

Following the completion of the study, I will provide your employer with a summary of the results. If you would like a copy of the summary sent directly to you as well, please contact me.

If you have any further questions regarding the study, please email:

Noor Awanis Muslim at: Noor.Muslim@lincolnuni.ac.nz

If you are happy to be involved in this study, please complete the enclosed questionnaire and return it to your supervisor.
Questionnaire: Part B (Demographics)

Age (in years) 

Gender (please tick one)  
- Male  
- Female

Ethnicity (please tick one)  
- Malay  
- Chinese

Occupation (please tick one)  
- Managerial  
- Engineer  
- Clerical
### Level of your job responsibility (please tick one)

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<td>1</td>
<td>Not responsible for supervising others</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Guides work of others who perform essentially the same work. May organize, set priorities, schedule and review work, but has no responsibility to hire, terminate, review performance or make pay decisions.</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Supervises work of others, including planning, assigning and scheduling work, reviewing work and ensuring quality standards, training staff and overseeing their productivity. May offer recommendations for hiring, termination and pay adjustments, but does not have responsibility for making these decisions.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Supervises work of others, including planning, assigning, scheduling and reviewing work, ensuring quality standards. Is responsible for hiring, terminating, training and developing, reviewing performance and administering corrective action for staff. Plans organizational structure and job content.</td>
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Part C: Requires that you answer each questions on a scale from: **Strongly disagree** to **Strongly agree**. As you rate each question, consider them in terms of factors that affect your personal job motivation. Please answer all questions by marking the appropriate response with a circling. You should only have one circle for each question.

In my previous job:

1. My salary was a good one.
   
   1. Strongly disagree
   2. Disagree
   3. Not sure
   4. Agree
   5. Strongly agree

2. I felt satisfied with my salary.

   1. Strongly disagree
   2. Disagree
   3. Not sure
   4. Agree
   5. Strongly agree

3. My pay was better than that for similar jobs in other firms.

   1. Strongly disagree
   2. Disagree
   3. Not sure
   4. Agree
   5. Strongly agree

4. My co-workers were friendly.

   1. Strongly disagree
   2. Disagree
   3. Not sure
   4. Agree
   5. Strongly agree
<p>| | | | | | |</p>
<table>
<thead>
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</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>5. My co-workers were helpful.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>6. My co-workers were personally interested in me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>7. My co-workers were competent.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>8. I felt close to my co-workers.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>9. My supervisor showed concern for me.</td>
<td>1</td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>Disagree</td>
<td>3</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>10. My supervisor was helpful in me getting work done.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>
11. My supervisor created a good teamwork environment.

12. I felt close to my supervisor.

13. I was satisfied with the competence of my supervisor in making decisions.

14. Company policies were well communicated.

15. Company personnel policies were well defined.

16. Personnel policies and practices in the company were good ones.
17. My physical surroundings were good.

18. My working conditions were comfortable.

19. The company did a good job of providing steady employment.

20. I decided on my own how to go about doing my work.

21. I was allowed to use my personal initiative and judgement in carrying out the work.

22. I had considerable opportunity for independence and freedom.
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Strongly disagree</th>
<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
<th>Strongly agree</th>
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</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>23.</td>
<td>I was satisfied with the praise that I got for doing a good job.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
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<tr>
<td>24.</td>
<td>I received plenty of recognition to motivate me at work.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>25.</td>
<td>I was satisfied with the non-financial rewards that I received.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>26.</td>
<td>I had the chance to direct others in their work.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
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<td>4</td>
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<tr>
<td>27.</td>
<td>I was satisfied with the feeling of accomplishment I got.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Strongly disagree</td>
<td>2</td>
<td>3</td>
<td>4</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>28.</td>
<td>I was satisfied with the opportunities for advancement.</td>
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</table>
29. I was satisfied with the fairness internal promotion.
   
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<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

30. I enjoyed the work.

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<tbody>
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<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
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</table>

31. My job was very interesting.

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<tbody>
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<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
</tr>
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</table>

32. The actual duties of my job were challenging.

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<tr>
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<td>Disagree</td>
<td>Not sure</td>
<td>Agree</td>
<td>Strongly agree</td>
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</tbody>
</table>
**Part D:** This part has two sections. Section one (1) requires you to respond whether or not you search the following characteristics for a new job (by ticking (/) the chosen one). If the answer is **Yes**, could you please proceed to section two (2). Section two requires you rate each questions on a scale from: **unimportant** to **very important** by marking the appropriate importance with a tick (/).

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
<th>Search characteristic for a new job</th>
<th>Section 1</th>
<th>Section 2</th>
<th>How important was it?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Did you search?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Unimportant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Freedom in the organization of my job.</td>
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<tr>
<td>2</td>
<td>Opportunity to use personal initiative and judgement on the job.</td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>3</td>
<td>Opportunity to have greater responsibility on the job.</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>No</th>
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<th>Section 1</th>
<th>Section 2</th>
<th>How important was it?</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
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<td>Did you search?</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Unimportant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>4</td>
<td>Opportunity to have more power in decision making.</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Search characteristic for a new job</td>
<td>Section 1</td>
<td>Section 2</td>
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<td>Did you search?</td>
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<td>How important was it?</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Unimportant</td>
<td>Of little importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>14</td>
<td>A challenging job.</td>
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<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>15</td>
<td>An interesting job.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>No</td>
<td>Search characteristic for a new job</td>
<td>Section 1</td>
<td>Section 2</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Did you search?</td>
<td></td>
<td>How important was it?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Yes</td>
<td>No</td>
<td>Unimportant</td>
<td>Of little importance</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>A Close relationship with supervisor.</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>A supervisor competent in decision making.</td>
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<td></td>
<td>Company stability.</td>
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<tr>
<td>24</td>
<td>Employment stability and security.</td>
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<tr>
<td>25</td>
<td>Well communicated company policies.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>26</td>
<td>Well defined company policies.</td>
<td></td>
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</tr>
<tr>
<td>27</td>
<td>Good personnel policies and practices.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>28</td>
<td>Good physical surroundings.</td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>29</td>
<td>Comfortable working conditions.</td>
<td></td>
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</tbody>
</table>

Thank you
Appendix B : A Malay version of questionnaire

Tajuk projek: Gelagat mencari maklumat pekerjaan: Ujikaji terhadap latarbelakang dan motivasi pencari keja dari aspek maklumat kerja konten dan konteks.

Soal selidik: Bahagian A

Tuan / Puan

Nama saya Noor Awanis Muslim, saya adalah pelajar P.h.D. di fakulti perdagangan di Lincoln University in New Zealand. Di dalam melengkapkan sebahagian pengajian saya, saya telah mengambil projek kajian di bawah penyeliaan Dr David Dean dan Dr David Cohen.
Kajian ini adalah untuk mengkaji motivasi pekerja dan ciri-ciri kerja. Kajian ini bertujuan untuk memberikan maklumat yang berguna tentang bagaimana jumlah pilihan yang pekerja mempunyai pengaruh motivasi kerja.


Soal selidik ini hanya mengambil kira-kira 30 minit untuk selesai dan penyertaan anda akan sangat dihargai. Anda bebas untuk menolak untuk menjawab mana-mana soalan.
Jika anda mempunyai sebarang soalan lanjut mengenai kajian ini, sila e-mel kepada: Noor Awanis Muslim at: Noor.Muslim@lincolnuni.ac.nz
Soal selidik: Bahagian B (Demografi)

Umur (tahun)  

Jantina (tanda yang berkenaan)  
☐ Lelaki
☐ Perempuan

Bangsa (tanda yang berkenaan)  
☐ Melayu
☐ Cina

Pekerjaan (tanda yang berkenaan)  
☐ Pengurusan
☐ Jurutera
☐ Kerani

☐ India

☐ Bumiputera
Tahap tanggungjawab penyeliaan kerja (hanya 1 pilihan dibenarkan)

- Tidak mempunyai tanggungjawab penyeliaan ke atas yang lain
  - Memberi panduan kerja kepada orang lain yang juga melaksanakan dasarnya kerja yang sama. Individu ini boleh menganjurkan, keutamaan yang ditetapkan, jadual dan kerja kajian, tetapi tidak bertanggungjawab untuk mengupah, menamatkan, prestasi kajian semula atau membuat keputusan gaji.
  - Supervises work of others, including planning, assigning and scheduling work, reviewing work and ensuring quality standards, training staff and overseeing their productivity. May offer recommendations for hiring, termination and pay adjustments, but does not have responsibility for making these decisions
  - Menyelia kerja orang lain, termasuk perancangan, memberi dan penjadualan kerja, mengkaji kerja dan memastikan standard kualiti, latihan kakitangan dan mengawasi produktiviti mereka. Individu ini boleh menawarkan cadangan untuk pengambilan, menamatkan dan pelarasan bayaran, tetapi tidak bertanggungjawab untuk membuat keputusan ini
Bahagian C: Anda diminta untuk menjawab setiap soalan berpandukan kepada skala yang diberikan iaitu bermula Sangat tidak bersetuju hingga ke Sangat bersetuju. Penilaian yang perlu dibuat adalah dengan menganggap bagaimana faktor-faktor yang diberikan itu mempengaruhi motivasi kerja peribadi anda. Sila beri satu jawapan sahaja.

Di dalam perkerjaan lama saya:

33. Gaji saya yang dulu adalah bagus

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
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<th>2</th>
<th>3</th>
<th>4</th>
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<tbody>
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<td>Tidak pasti</td>
<td>Setuju</td>
<td>Sangat setuju</td>
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</tbody>
</table>

34. Saya sangat berpuashati dengan gaji saya yang dulu

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35. Gaji saya adalah lebih baik daripada tugas yang sama di firma-firma lain

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36. Rakan kerja yang mesra

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37. Rakan kerja yang sangat membantu

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38. Rakan kerja yang prihatin

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39. Rakan kerja yang berwibawa

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40. Saya rapat dengan rakan kerja

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<tr>
<td>41.</td>
<td>Penyelia yang sangat perihatin terhadap saya</td>
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<td>Penyelia membantu didalam tugas saya</td>
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<td>Penyelia saya mencetuskan suasana kerja berkumpulan</td>
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44. Saya berasa dekat dengan penyelia saya

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45. Saya berpuas hati dengan kecekapan penyelia saya dalam membuat keputusan

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46. Polisi syarikat adalah telus dan di beritahu umum kepada pekerja-pekerja.

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47. Dasar syarikat yang digariskan adalah jelas.

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48. Syarikat mempunyai polisi dan amalan personel yang baik.
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49. Persekitaran fizikal saya yang baik.

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50. Keadaan kerja saya selesa.

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51. Syarikat saya melakukan kerja yang baik menyediakan pekerjaan yang stabil.

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</table>

52. Saya membuat keputusan saya sendiri bagaimana untuk melakukan kerja saya.
53. Saya dibenarkan untuk menggunakan inisiatif peribadi saya dan pertimbangan dalam menjalankan kerja.

54. Saya mempunyai peluang besar untuk kemerdekaan dan kebebasan.

55. Saya berpuas hati dengan pujian yang saya dapatkan untuk melakukan kerja yang baik.

56. Saya menerima banyak pengiktirafan untuk memberi motivasi kepada saya di tempat kerja.
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57. Saya berpuas hati dengan ganjaran bukan kewangan yang saya terima.

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58. Saya mempunyai peluang untuk mengarahkan orang lain dalam kerja mereka.

<table>
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59. Saya berpuas hati dengan pencapaian saya.

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</table>

60. Saya berpuas hati dengan peluang-peluang untuk kemajuan pekerjaan saya.
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<tr>
<th>Sangat setuju</th>
<th>Tidak setuju</th>
<th>Tidak pasti</th>
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61. Saya berpuas hati dengan promosi dalam yang adil.

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</table>

62. Saya suka pekerjaan saya.

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<th>1</th>
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</table>

63. Pekerjaan saya adalah menarik.

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64. Tugas sebenar saya adalah mencabar.

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</table>
Bahagian D: Bahagian ini mempunyai dua bahagian. Bahagian satu (1) memerlukan anda untuk menjawab sama ada Ya atau Tidak anda mencari ciri-ciri berikut untuk pekerjaan baru (dengan menandakan (/) satu yang dipilih). Jika jawapannya ya, anda boleh sila teruskan ke bahagian dua (2). Bahagian dua memerlukan anda menilai setiap soalan pada skala dari: tidak penting untuk sangat penting dengan menandakan kepentingan yang sesuai dengan tick (/).

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<thead>
<tr>
<th>Bil</th>
<th>Mencari ciri-ciri untuk pekerjaan baru</th>
<th>Section 1 Adakah anda mencari?</th>
<th>Section 2 Tahap pentingnya ciri tersebut?</th>
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<td>Ya</td>
<td>Tidak penting</td>
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<tr>
<td>1</td>
<td>Kebebasan di dalam menstuktur kerja saya.</td>
<td>Tidak penting</td>
<td>Sikit penting</td>
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<td>2</td>
<td>Berpeluang untuk menggunakan inisiatif dan pertimbangan peribadi di dalam mengendalikan tugas.</td>
<td>Sikit penting</td>
<td>Agak penting</td>
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<td>3</td>
<td>Berpeluang untuk menggalas tanganberjawiab kerja yang lebih berat.</td>
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<td>4</td>
<td>Berpeluang untuk mempunyai kuasa di dalam pembuatan keputusan.</td>
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<td>5</td>
<td>Berpeluang menggunakan metod tersendiri di dalam mengendalikan tugas.</td>
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<td>6</td>
<td>Berpeluang promosi dalaman.</td>
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<td>Berpeluang untuk kemajuan diri.</td>
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<td>8</td>
<td>Berpeluang untuk meraih penghargaan.</td>
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<td>9</td>
<td>Pujian-pujian</td>
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<td>10</td>
<td>Ganjaran bukan kewangan.</td>
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<td>11</td>
<td>Peluang untuk mengarah.</td>
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<td>12</td>
<td>Pencapaian kerja yang dihargai.</td>
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<td>13</td>
<td>Pekerjaan yang menyonokkan.</td>
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<td>14</td>
<td>Pekerjaan yang mencabar.</td>
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<td>15</td>
<td>Pekerjaan yang menarik.</td>
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<td>16</td>
<td>Gaji yang bagus</td>
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<td>18</td>
<td>Gaji yang lebih baik daripada tugasan yang sama di firma-firma lain.</td>
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<td>19</td>
<td>Hubungan mesra di kalangan rakan sekerja.</td>
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<td>Membantu rakan sekerja.</td>
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<td>21</td>
<td>Mempunyai minat yang sama dengan rakan sekerja.</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>Rakan kerja yang berwibawa</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Mempunyai hubungan rapat dengan rakan kerja</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Penyelia yang perihatin</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>Penyelia yang ringan tulang.</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>Mempunyai hubungan yang rapat dengan penyelia.</td>
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<td>22</td>
<td>Seorang penyelia yang cekap dalam membuat keputusan.</td>
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<td>23</td>
<td>Kestabilan syarikat</td>
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<td>24</td>
<td>Jaminan dan kestabilan sesuatu pekerjaan.</td>
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<td>25</td>
<td>Dasar syarikat diberitahu kepada pekerja</td>
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<td>26</td>
<td>Polisi syarikat yang bagus.</td>
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<td>27</td>
<td>Amalan dasar personel yang bagus.</td>
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<td>28</td>
<td>Persekitaran fizikal yang bagus.</td>
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<td>29</td>
<td>Persekitaran kerja yang selesa.</td>
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-Thank you-
Appendix C : Ethics Committee Approval Form  
Lincoln University

Faculty, Department or Research Centre: _Commerce, Lincoln University_

Research Information Sheet

You are invited to participate as a subject in a project entitled

Name of project ____________________________

Information Seeking Behaviour in Recruiting: Examining the background and motivation of job-seeking employees in their search for job content and job context information

The aim of this project is:

The study aims to provide useful information about how the amount of choice that an employee has influences job motivation

Your participation in this project will involve:

You will be asked to complete the enclosed questionnaire. Any information you provide will be completely anonymous and strictly confidential. Only group results will be reported and no individuals will be identified.

The questionnaire should take around 30 minutes to complete and your participation will be greatly appreciated. You are free to withdraw at any time during the study, in which case your participation in the research study will immediately cease and any information obtained will not be used. You are free to refuse to answer any questions.

Following the completion of the study, I will provide your employer with a summary of the results. If you would like a copy of the summary sent directly to you as well, please contact me.

The project is being carried out by:

Name of principal researcher Noor Awanis Muslim

Contact details Noor.Muslim@lincolnuni.ac.nz

He/She will be pleased to discuss any concerns you have about participation in the project.
Name of Supervisor/Head of Department/Faculty Dean or Director

Dr David Dean
Dr David Cohen
(If you are a staff member seeking HEC approval please provide Head of Department/Faculty Dean or Director details).

Contact Details: David.Dean@lincoln.ac.nz; David.Cohen@lincoln.ac.nz

The project has been reviewed and approved by the Lincoln University Human Ethics Committee.